

AVIATION

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MARCH 16, 1929

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Flight picture of the Doyle "Oriole," a new 60 hp. LeBlond powered sport plane.

VOLUME
XXVI

Special Features

Spark Plug Problems
The "Cabinaire" Biplane
Systematizing an Aviation School

NUMBER
11

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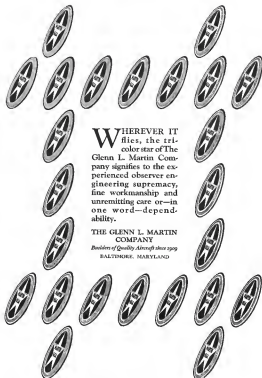
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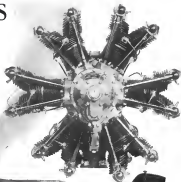
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Vol. XXVI

MARCH 16, 1929

No. 11

Harry S. New

THE fundamental principles along which it is planned to develop a new business are of major importance. Details can be worked out in perfection, but if the foundations are assumed failures are sure to follow. Conversely, if the foundations have been correctly laid the business will prosper in spite of imperfect details. This is the reason the aviationists who have a successful record for laying down and following out sound ideas, receive rewards which seem to many to be out of line with the work which they have actually done.

In the development of our air mail we have been fortunate in having in the Post Office Department men of vision who could see in it a great stimulus to commerce, and who had sense enough to direct its development along sound lines. Postmaster General Harry S. New, who retired on March 4, was one of these leaders. During his tenure of office certain moves were made which will have a permanent effect on the development of the air mail, and from all present indications the moves were made along very sound and progressive lines. In the first place, the flying of the mail has been transferred from the Government over to private contractors. Further, a scheme has been worked out which will permit a satisfactory contractor to hold his contract for as long as he performs satisfactory service.

The extension of our air mail service to South America will, however, stand out as the most important achievement of Postmaster New's regime. He has been the moving power behind this development and it is probable that, without his influence and energetic backing, this service would have gone by default, and would have been taken over by foreign countries. The air mail service to South America should be an enormous benefit to our trade, and will be worth more than the cost of the whole air mail development to date. Postmaster New can retire with the feeling that he has done something of real benefit to his country.

Nosing Over

THE coming spring days mean end to the flying fields, and deep sticky mud on the fields means that planes are apt to nose over. Nosing over may mean really serious damage to the plane and injury to the passenger. Nosing over is probably an even more frequent cause of damage to planes than running into obstacles. To some extent nosing over can be prevented by putting the wheels far forward, but this means that great stresses are put on the tail skid and that it is hard to raise the tail for the take off.

Various schemes have been tried, varying from the

early Wright skids to a series of wheels placed one in front of the other. None of these schemes has so far been widely accepted and we still attach the wheels and tail skid arrangements, probably due to its simplicity. There is a real field for development work in this direction. The present day wheels offer a very great head resistance. Tail skids dig up the field and put undue strains on the fuselage. The angle at which a plane can be landed is directly favored by this factor and by the difficulty of getting the tail up for the take off. With so many factors against the present type of landing gear it is more than probable that the planes of the future will not have the present day undercarriages.

Passenger Pilots

AMERICAN air mail pilots are as fine a group of men as can be found anywhere in the world, but this does not necessarily mean that they can be transferred to passenger transport planes without a certain amount of training. The air mail pilot at the controls of a transport plane sometimes does not realize the feelings of the passengers inside the cabin, or he may even be inclined to take advantage of his situation and treat his passengers to a "ride".

On a recent flight across the continent in a combination mail and passenger plane we suddenly found ourselves in a very steep side slip, and the plane finally came out about a hundred feet over a cemetery. The pilot thought this a great joke, but one of the cabin ladies told us any later on the passenger would have been very angry. Later we were informed that the throttles on two of the engines had stuck and that the switches had had to be cut in order to make a landing. Also we were informed that the engines were consuming far too much gasoline and that there seemed to be something wrong with them. Later on in the flight one of the pilots practiced blind flying.

Several of the pilots handled their planes rather roughly, putting them into vertical banks before landing or in taking off, or nosing them suddenly and unnecessarily. All this occurred on one trip and in the normal handling of a plane by a mail pilot. Probably some of the pilots considered that their flying was of a nature to disturb a passenger, or if they did, they may have considered that they had a right to fly as they wished. The selling of flying to the public, however, is not going to be an easy matter, and one of these things which will have to be considered is the dominating or outwitting of emotions which might inspire fear in the passengers. To instill this idea into the minds of pilots who have learned the joys of stunting and who have been flying as they pleased for ten years or more will be a big difficulty, and certain pilots will never learn how respectful a passenger feels when a cabin plane is handled roughly.

Spark Plug Problems

The Relation of Heat Characteristics to Operating Conditions

By HECTOR RABEZZANA

Chief Spark Plug Development Engineer,
E. C. Spark Plug Co.

WHEN a spark plug performs unsatisfactorily it is often due to use of a plug intended for another type engine, or a different operating condition. No matter how good a spark plug may be, it will not give satisfactory service if it is of the wrong type. Generally the public fails to realize that there is a big difference between spark plugs—not only in the quality of the material and workmanship used in their manufacture, but also in the heat characteristics of the plugs themselves.

Spark plugs have three positions, pre-ignition, rapid wearing away of the electrodes and fouling. Pre-ignition is the result of the plugs becoming red hot and firing a mixture too early, causing the engine and a sharp decrease in the engine's power. The fast wearing away of electrodes results from the plugs operating at too high a temperature. The fouling of a plug is due to two causes—liquid fuel and oil reaching the gap and combustion deposition over the insulator.

Fouling results, due to oil or liquid fuel, very rarely occurs in power-driven engines, and when it does appear it is generally referred to as "an engine pumping oil." Not only will there be trouble under such a condition, but also there will be excessive carbon deposition. Even clean oil will cause trouble through fouling the carbon on a plug that may be highly carbon coated. Also a new plug can be short-circuited by its deposit in which there is a small space between the shell and the electrode.

Not only has it been proved in the engine and in a non-conductor of electricity, but also in an acid as it becomes filled with carbon, it is then a conductor of electricity.

The least cost of so-called carbon which forms over the insulator of a plug is the result of too low operating temperature for that plug. When the engine reaches a higher temperature, the insulator also will raise its temperature and automatically burn away the carbon which has piled up during the cold running period. But, on the other hand, if the temperature reaches too high a point, it will cause the plug to pre-ignite, or cause detonation. These heats of temperature are all worked out by the physical dimensions of the part of the insulator which is exposed to the combustion gases and the overall design of the plug.

If the insulators of the plugs become a brownish color, this most usually has a non-code base, and when that coat detaches in color, because it becomes thicker, it is advisable to change plugs, as they will cause misfire at wide open throttle.

If a spark plug develops leakage between the shell and

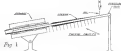


Fig. 1

the porcelain, the insulator cracks, or the electrode wires wear out too fast, this is a sure sign that the plug used becomes too hot in that engine. A plug made to run cooler has to be used, as will be explained in the second part of this article. It is absolutely necessary to get one type of plug to meet the requirements of different engines, or the different conditions under which the same engine may be used.

The spark plug, aside from its service as an igniter, is the only part of the engine that, with visual inspection, can give an exact diagnosis of the condition of the engine. Let's analyze a few of them.

If a new set of plugs is installed on an engine, and after a few hours of running, without any excessive idling at the end of the run, the plugs are removed and examined and show a black coat, this will indicate that the type of plug used is too cold for that engine. These should be changed for one with long insulators, which will allow a lower temperature working range so the carbon will burn away, thus preventing the plug from becoming fouled. If the plug shows a very white insulator, after a few hours of running, that type of plug is too hot, and it may cause pre-ignition. In this case a plug with a shorter insulator should be used.

In setting the carburetor, use a spark plug that is known to work right, and if the insulator stays white after a few hours of running, it means that the carburetor is too lean and back-firing in the carburetor may happen very easily. If the plug reaches a heavy coat with black spots after a few minutes' run, that means that the carburetor is too rich and it will have a tendency to foul the plug quickly. If the porcelain becomes a dark brown color in a very short time and everything else on the engine appears to be all right, including carburetor, most likely the fuel used should be discarded if possible, because not only the plugs will be short-lived, but this fuel will also cause the engine to detonate.

To eliminate flying or on every long haul, the spark plug gaps have to be reduced in size to prevent flash-over on the outside of the plugs. If the wearing of the electrode is not due to excessive engine temperature, or to long use of plugs, it is always possible to pour fuel. Fuel with a high percentage of sulphur should not be used, because it may cause the electrodes and wires to become corroded so quickly that it may put an end to a flight in an embarrassingly short time, due to the failure of either the electrode wire or the valves.

Lubricating oil also has to be watched in order to avoid the same trouble because the sulphur content may produce sulphuric acid when combined with water, either as a result of condensation or combustion residue. In this case the intake of the engine, especially the bearings, will suffer considerably.

When we once learn how to judge engine conditions from analysis of the plugs, it is easy to avoid trouble by choosing the right plug for a given job.

Fig. 2

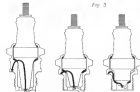


Fig. 2

Of the various characteristics of the ignition spark, its appearance, fuel, its intensity, color, etc., does not determine its ignition value. It is not possible to add to the power of an engine by adding condensers, retardation coils, auxiliary gaps and the like to the ignition system. This statement must be taken as referring to the spark, and not to the spark plug, for it is well known that the use of an improper type of spark plug may cause pre-ignition, and old and fouled spark plugs may cause misfire and resultant loss of power.

The spark plug, being exposed to the burning gases at its lower end, absorbs an amount of heat proportional

Fig. 3



to the surface exposed to the heat. Part of the heat thus absorbed must pass off through the rest of the plug, but enough should be retained to always keep the plug at a sufficiently high temperature to prevent fouling, as will be explained later.

Fouling depends mainly on the temperature of the plug, as can be demonstrated by means of the apparatus shown in Fig. 1. Rods of different materials, with holes for thermocouples in them, at definite intervals, are heated in this apparatus, and are dropped on the side which is exposed to more temperature. The rod is inclined at such an angle that the oil will flow along it. If the furnace is maintained at 900 deg. C., the oil will begin to overboil in a certain point along the rod, and will burn off at a point nearer the furnace, where the temperature is still higher. The points where carbonization and burning begin vary with different oils, but the differences are slight. If the rod is of a material of high heat-conductivity, the temperature gradient will be less and the carbon deposit will extend over a considerable portion of the length of the rod, within which there may be several thermo-couples.

The above test shows the desirability of keeping the insulators of spark plugs at a temperature high enough to burn away the carbon, because carbon is a good con-

ductor of electricity and when covering the rest of the insulator will short-circuit the plug and cause misfire. This is the reason why there is a limit to the so-called "hotness" of a plug. If a plug is so designed that it cannot hold enough heat to reach a temperature that will enable it to burn the carbon, it will give trouble from fouling. It is for this reason that a mixing plug, which is designed to take care of abnormal heat, will make a very poor showing in a converted engine, where it will make fouling trouble.

If thermo-couples are set into a plug designed to remove them (Fig. 2) at such a way that the temperature of the hottest part of the plug, where the carbon begins to pre-ignite can be read off, and the test is carried out with the various fuels on the market, the experiment will enable one to determine the temperatures which mark the limit of usefulness of the plug with the different fuels.

Presumably the plug should always be hot enough to burn any carbon that may be formed, but not hot enough to cause pre-ignition. Unfortunately the temperature range marked by these two limits is comparatively narrow—only about 250 deg. C.—which explains why plugs may easily cause trouble.

By referring to Fig. 3 it can be seen that the heat absorbed by the plug at its inner end, passes from the end of the center wire through the tip of the insulator, the body of the shell, the seat plug shell, and the plug gasket into the cylinder wall and into the cooling water. The threaded portion of the plug conducts only a negligible portion of the heat absorbed, and practically all of the heat must pass through the seat. There are numerous factors which tend to cause the temperature of the plug to vary, these including: Engine revolutions per minute; load on engine; cooling water temperature; engine temperature; end of fuel; spark advance; air-fuel ratio; air density; temperature of air around plug; and amount exposed part of plug.

Considering the difference in engine revolutions per minute by using either cruising speed or top speed it is easy to see that the same plug cannot at the best be used in both cases.

Fig. 4 shows plugs of different designs, with parts of heat flow of different lengths, and illustrates how, by varying the resistance to heat flow, especially in the insulator, the working temperature of the plug can be controlled.

To meet aviation requirements the AC Spark Plug Co., besides the aviation line already in the market for many years, has developed a set of plugs shown in Fig. 4. With this set of plugs it is possible to take care of any aviation engine in the market. This line of plugs is so designed that each member of it will, under given engine conditions, run slightly cooler than the one which follows. Each plug is identified by a number and the higher the number the hotter the plug is adapted for use in a cold engine.



Fig. 4

The "Cabinaire" Biplane

Four Place Cabin Craft Produced by Paramount Aircraft Corp. Inc.

Designed Around the Warner "Scarab" Engine

THE "Cabinaire" biplane, which is now being produced by the Paramount Aircraft Corp., Saginaw, Mich., is one of the first airplanes to be designed around the Warner "Scarab" engine. This craft, which is intended for private use and operation over rural and regional feeder lines, is a four-place, cabin biplane. It is the result of more than a year of development and test flights and has given proof of high performance and other qualities. Although the Warner engine is the standard power plant for this plane, other engines up to 300 hp. can be installed.

With the Warner engine, which develops 120 hp. at 1850 r.p.m., the Cabinaire has a high speed of 203 m.p.h., a cruising speed of 90 m.p.h. and a landing speed of 35 m.p.h. The rate of climb at sea level is 750 ft. per min. and the service ceiling 12,000 ft. The plane has an upper wing span of 34 ft. 8 in., a lower wing span of 29 ft., an overall length of 23 ft. and a height of 9 ft. The weight empty is 1,300 lb. and the total weight loaded 2,200 lb.

In general design the "Cabinaire" is representative of the single bay cabin biplane which have found increasing favor during the past year. The lower wing panels are attached at the lower fuselage longerons, and the upper wing, which

is in two panels, without a center section, is attached by cable struts to the fuselage. The usual "N" type struts with external bracing were employed.

During the design period wind tunnel tests were conducted at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Solid laminated spruce spars are used in the wing structure with web ribs and a duralumin trailing edge. Square Hartzhorn tie rods, doubled in the front bay, are employed in the internal drag bracing. Balanced ailerons are used with construction similar to that of the wings.

The wing is covered with Plyform fabric and doped. Wiring for landing and navigation lights is provided. The air-fuel mixture is original and produces a good combination of rapid take-off and low landing speed. In tests the plane has taken off fully loaded in 150 ft. and landed with the use of brakes in 50 ft.

Conventional welded steel tubing and fabric covering is employed in the fuselage construction with a special bracing which produces a high center and entrance smoothness. All welding of the fuselage structure is done in jigs to prevent twist, distortion, or loss of alignment at any point in the fuselage. Openings in the welding are sealed to prevent in-

ternal oxidation. In order to prevent weakening of members, no drilling whatever is done on the fuselage structure. The tail members also are built of the same materials and adequate external bracing is provided. The detachable engine mounting is a built of welded steel tubing and aluminum cowling of 0040 weight is employed. A firewall containing sealed felt pads prevents smoke or engine odors from passing through to the cabin.

The rotary cowl possesses a clean mirror appearance and nothing but the metal plated control stick, and two sets of pedals and the instrument panel consisting of altimeter, tachometer, oil pressure and oil temperature gauges, is provided. Two window doors are installed in the forward portion of the cabin and a full width window screen is placed in the rear. Behind the screen is a baggage compartment of ample capacity. Window rounding and dash board sets are of aluminum and a rubber rug is furnished for the floor. Doors are provided on both sides of the cabin. Special attention has been paid to visibility. The windows in front are glazed with Pittsburgh Security Non Shatterable glass and Plexiglas is used in the side windows.

Dual control is provided with a simple control stick and the patented brake control consists of two small levers mounted on the control stick. A single pressure on either or both of these levers actuates the Bendix brakes. The advantage of this arrangement is that the brake control is not in the way at any time but easily accessible when needed and the feet are left free to manipulate the rudder. A control for the radiator adjusting mechanism is also located near the pilot's seat. Push-pull tubes are used through the control system with the

exception of the rubber cables which lead directly aft. All connections between the plane and the power plant, including the throttle rod, are fitted with vibration joints. Gasoline tanks, manufactured by the Paramount Tank Co., and installed in each of the upper wing panels, have a combined capacity of 42 gal. and give the plane a cruising range of 455 mi. Tanks may be taken out for inspection by the removal of two nuts. Fuel is fed by

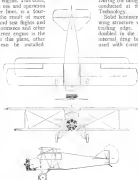


Interior photograph of Paramount plane.

Top: ITT type lamp built in the nose working department.

Center: A simplified "Cabinaire" fuselage structure.

Bottom: Welding at work building up a fuselage.



Above: A three view drawing of the "Cabinaire" biplane. Below: Rear quarter view of the craft.



gravity through 1/4 in. copper tubing to the engine by way of a selective Lankenshaver valve which permits use of the tanks separately or together. The oil capacity is four gallons. An oil-rain ring located behind the engine is connected to a combination muffler and exhaust heater. A Standard Steel propeller is furnished as regular equipment and a self starter is optional.

The landing gear, which is of the split type, is sturdy and has a total of 7 ft. 6 in. The axle is located 21 in. ahead of the center of gravity. Standard equipment includes Aerol shock absorber struts 28 x 4 Bristle wheels and hubs with 30 x 5 tires. All hinge connections of the undercarriage at the fuselage are designed to provide a means of adjusting position. A spring tail skid is provided with a replaceable manganese steel shoe.

The manufacturer's specifications are as follows:

Span, upper wing	34 ft. 8 in.
Span, lower wing	29 ft.
Total wing area, including ailerons	322 sq. ft.
Height	9 ft.
Length	23 ft. 9 in.
Landing gear track	7 ft. 6 in.
Wingtip empty	1300 lb.
Total weight loaded	2200 lb.
Gasoline capacity	42 gal.
Oil capacity	4 gal.
High speed	203 m.p.h.
Cruising speed	90 m.p.h.
Landing speed	35 m.p.h.
Rate of climb at sea level	750 ft. per min.
Service ceiling	12,000 ft.
Cruising range	455 mi.

Systematizing an Aviation School

By CHARLES E. PLANCE

THROUGH three years of operation in the flying school business, the Embury-Riddle Co., London Airport, Cincinnati, O., has realized the imperative need of a rigid system of instruction both in ground school and flying school. Without such a system the school easily slips into the haphazard, and the airport gathers a crowd of loafers, most of them unable to take training, but willing to sit for hours and watch planes fly.

In planning the system which now obtains in the school, Robert L. Rockwell, Major Air Reserve, formerly in the Lafayette Roadville, the head of the school, and Walter H. Grayson, chief ground school instructor, considered one important matter first.

That concerns the willingness of the student to apply himself and assimilate the lessons in ground school and in actual flying instruction. Sometimes the discipline necessary with large groups of students approaches that necessary in a military school. Particularly in ground school classes, where for one week, five nights a week,



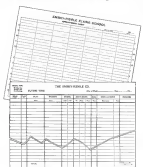
they start study, is this discipline very rigid.

Whether a student is learning to fly would voluntarily accept such restrictions was a question, but it was found that most of the class were so intent on improving themselves for a career in aviation that they were willing to study and study hard. The length and scope of this course is indicated by the following outline of the first course of 1939: Lessons—(1) Jan. 7, Department of Commerce rules and regulations; (2) Jan. 8, Aeronautical Nomenclature; (3) Jan. 9, Aerodynamics—resistance, shapes; (4) Jan. 10, Aerodynamics—lift, airfoil, design; (5) Jan. 11, Aerodynamics—complete review; (6) Jan. 14, Aerodynamics—stability; (7) Jan. 15, Aerodynamics—performance; (8) Jan. 16, Aerodynamics—stress, structural flying; (9) Jan. 17, Airplane Construction—materials; (10) Jan. 18, Airplane Construction—hardware, wings, etc.; (11) Jan. 21, Airplane Construction—controls; (12) Jan. 22, Airplane Construction—dopes and fabrics; (13) Jan. 23, Airplane Construction—wires and cables; (14) Jan. 24, Airplane Construction—rigging, general repair; (15) Jan. 25, Propellers; (16) Jan. 26, Review and Examination; (17) Jan. 29, Power Plant—theory; (18) Jan. 30, Power Plant—parts; (19) Feb. 1, Power Plant—valves; (20) Feb. 4, Power Plant—carburetors; (21) Feb. 5, Power Plant—lubrication and oil; (22) Feb. 6, Power Plant—ignition; (23) Feb. 7, Power Plant—spark; (24) Feb. 8, Power Plant—engine cooled engines (COK-5); (25) Feb. 11, Power Plant—air-cooled engines (Wright, Velle and P. & W.); (26) Feb. 12, Power Plant—installation and inspection, etc.; (27) Feb. 13, Gyroscopes; (28) Feb. 14, Gyroscopes; (29) Feb. 15, Aerial Photography and Mapping; (30) Feb. 16, Review and Examination; (31) Feb. 17, Examination.

Lessons are assigned and printed copies

distributed the night before, and are discussed and developed during the class period. Each lesson averages ten pages of single-spaced typewritten material, and use or more pages of illustrations. Following each lesson are printed about a dozen questions, conveniently arranged to facilitate review. Mr. Grayson holds a short review at the beginning of each lesson on the important features of preceding lessons, and at the close of the course a general review.

After successfully passing this course a student receives the "paper" examination for a transport pilot's license. Illustrations of each lesson, while they are included on one or two pages of the lesson study, are produced on the blackboard during the lesson study. They are still available for study after the lesson is completed, on the various lesson sheets. A room for ground school seating 75 is used, and classes begin regularly at 7:30. The above schedule was for the first 1939 ground course.



Above: Reproduction of the appointment sheet used by Embury-Riddle, and a log sheet for recording daily flying time of all planes. Below: A student about to be hoist aloft by the instructor.



For flying instruction a second rigid program is maintained. The school department, co-operating with the operations department, makes the best use of planes available, and every action of the student is watched, while he is getting in his solo time. The remaining is done by an "alert" pilot who sits in the supervisor's office in the second floor of the office building, and who reports to the school department any occurrences of the soloing student which need correcting.

A license receives the plane, each morning from the hangar after they have been inspected and checked by mechanics. The student and his instructor are assigned to specific planes by cards issued from the head of the school or school secretary for dual instruction training. This card must be presented to the license before the plane is released. The license then records the time of take-off and landing of each plane, naming instructor and student, or student in case of solo flying.

The license is responsible for knowledge of the whereabouts of all planes under his control. He checks frequently on all planes on the line and reports any that are unduly absent from the field. He also reports flying of any character on the part of any solo student not permitted by school rules, as well as infractions of airport and flying rules by any instructor.

His vigilance, together with the watchfulness of the "alert" pilot in operations office, prevents any risky flying on the part of "solo" students. A school rule requires that students getting solo time fly within flying distance of the field and only over the hope flat fields of the Little Miami valley anything more main east of the field.

The school policy is to check every solo student every two hours for the first 25 hrs, and subsequently every few hours. This checking is made more frequent at the suggestion of the "alert" pilot, who frequently is assigned to this job. Instructors are regular air mail pilots employed on the C. A. M. Route 24 operated by the Company. QX-5 powered Waco training planes are used. Because of the possession of a large number of new engines of this type, and the standardized systems of equipment, together with the low original and upkeep cost, the school is able to keep its instruction financially within reach of a great number of students. Several engines are kept stock overhauled and ready for installation in training planes. There is never any delay in this respect. Engines are overhauled every 100 hr.

An alarm against crash in the front cockpit and reversible control sticks are being installed in all aircraft.

ties planes. These two features give the pilot complete control of the plane at all times, and he is not inclined to depend on the automatic adjustment of a new student in emergencies that might result in crashes. The removable stick is of the type that is operated from the front cockpit by means of a wire, which, when pulled, instantly disconnects the stick in the pilot's or student's cockpit. The switch is considered valuable in training where the instructor is acquainted at the mercy of a green student.

The operations department has announced that one place in the winter time can take care of the instruction needs of five students. During summer flying one place will take care of 15 students. The difference results from the added maintenance difficulties in winter cooled engines in cold weather and the much longer "flying hour" day that results in summer, the latter reason accounting for most of the difference.

A night maintenance crew at the hangar is working throughout the summer, and a plane requisitioned on the afternoon of one instruction day is ready for the air the next morning. This method facilitates service, and prevents delays in instruction programs.

The largest and most complete course offered in the school is the 200 hr. course which turns out a transport pilot. For the pilot who desires to cut his training period down to a minimum this is the course advised by the school flyers. Upon graduation the pilot is capable of handling any type of plane and qualified to fly passengers or express anywhere. In this course the great burning of the advanced course is supplanted with a long transition period, with flying time of a great variety of plane types.

Results of the school, and school representatives who are most prospective students are instructed to emphasize the 50 hr. or "advanced" course. The company has realized the imperative need of pilots, and is constantly on the lookout among its students for truly material for its own pilot force.

The advanced course turns out a student capable of passing the examination for a limited commercial pilot's license, experienced in flying several types of planes, cross-country, aerial navigation, and maintenance. The last two items with which the student is given an introduction to work, with instruction in handling Whirlwind, post-war, Monocoupe, Puchault and Parnaglo. Where students show unusual aptitude, this training was extended to 10 hr. Beginning in the summer of 1938, a Missa War 30 and with personnel will be used on the Ohio River, 200 yd from the field, for training in this type.

Aerial navigation problems are worked out for each student of the advanced course by Major Rackwell, who checks every student in the school. These usually consist of a triangular cross-country flight with the instructor as a passenger. Waypoints, spins and stalls are taught every student, primary or advanced, and advanced students are required to become proficient in these maneuvers before graduation. Certain planes are specified for this type of flying, and are especially inspected by the

instructor and hangar mechanics to insure absolute safety. Grifting prospects and signing up students in the flying school is taking on a new slanting aspect.

"Give them one chance. If they are interested, and the right type, urge them on." If not, drop them because there are lots more waiting" is a motto of one of the student representatives, and this practice generally is followed by the school.

Thus far, it has not been necessary to sell the courses with any intensive sales psychology or so-called "high-pressure" methods. The school has not maintained a devoted sales office, and has depended almost entirely on indirect contacts to supply prospects.

Among these indirect contacts are a house agent, "Easy-Bidder Sky Traffic," sent to prospective users of the company's service, responses to educational programs over station WJLV every Saturday night at 7-8:30, advertisements in national trade magazines, classified advertisements in local newspapers, advertisements in places at automobile, food, and industrial shows, a special school exhibit at the Detroit Aircraft Show, activities of a sportsmen's bureau and the Sunday pleasure-flying crowds.

In the case of every prospect, the first effort has been to get him to the airport. This indicates his sincere interest, and commences the time of the school representative, who is a busy enough man anyhow. Once the student has admitted interest and a desire to learn to fly, the representative confers with him as to effort to determine the type of course best suited for the student.

Almost every applicant has a story to tell in his mind. "I want to be an air mail pilot" is a frequently repeated remark. The representative first advises the advanced 50 hr. course, according to the policy of the company. If finances prevent following this plan, the primary course is suggested, and if finances are not available, the student is quoted, the interest of the applicant is retained and postponed by enrolling him in the ground school course.

Not infrequently, the ground school graduate obtains enough money to take the actual flying course, and the primary course graduate obtains enough money to finish his 50 hr. of solo, and graduate as a pilot. The student representative during the last three years, from 1935 and January, 1935, averaged 100 letters a week, and 35 interviews at the field a week.

A plan for using students in the school as part time representatives of the school is now in operation. When the student has enrolled into students for the primary course, he is given an hour in the air in company planes for the first, and \$15 cash for the second. Capitalizing on the acquaintances and friends of students has resulted in many additional enrollments.

The public relations department of the company has worked out a careful system of publicity on each student. Stories are sent to all home town papers throughout the training period, telling of his progress. These stories usually are printed in full in local papers, and have been found to be effective in awakening further interest in this town.

Concerning the Burdens and Costs

By EDWIN R. DOUGLAS
Consulting Engineer

WE have seen that the distribution of overhead through a blanket percentage, or burden or base cost, may lead to large errors, that results are more correct when overheads on materials, labor, selling and administration are handled separately, and that a still other approximation is reached when departmental divisions and distribution of overhead are made.

The latter plan is reasonably simple and works very well when the character of the work going through each department is at all times substantially the same. This is likely to be the case in an airplane or engine factory, and the departmental plan will probably find wide application in these industries. It is not, however, handsomely correct, and is likely to lead to considerable errors when figuring the unit costs of parts made by different processes, such as hand work or machine work, stamping or forgings, etc. This will be particularly true where, to get straight line production, machines and operations of different types are grouped in separate in the same department. The overhead of the department includes the indirect operating expenses of all the machines and processes in it, but the operating expenses of a hot forging group, a stamping press, a work-bench, and a miller, for example, would be very different. Each of these would involve the direct labor of one man, but the type of operating expense to direct labor (the burden rate) for each might be about as follows:

Hot forging group, consisting of all percent, heavy press and drill machine	100 percent on direct labor
Stamping press	200 percent on direct labor
Work-bench	250 percent on direct labor
Miller	250 percent on direct labor

Obviously it would not do to compute the costs of arti-

Part	Material	Labor	Overhead	Total
Hot forging group	100	100	100	300
Stamping press	200	100	200	500
Work-bench	250	100	250	600
Miller	250	100	250	600

Fig. 1

cles made by these different processes by adding a uniform departmental burden of 25% per cent on each. For such comparisons the individual rates of the different processes (commonly called "machine rates") must be used. Particularly should estimates of costs and savings by new and different processes be based on individual machine rate burdens. These must evaluate as correctly as possible

Part	Material	Labor	Overhead	Total
Hot forging group	100	100	100	300
Stamping press	200	100	200	500
Work-bench	250	100	250	600
Miller	250	100	250	600

Fig. 2

ble the use made by each process of every service charged to the department, such as floor space, power, water, steam, light, supervision, clerical expense, repairs, depreciation, insurance, taxes, etc., and should not forget: return on investment. Regarding this last item, there is no subject to re-open here the battle between the "interest" and the "no interest" groups. But when we are considering the investment of funds in some new and improved equipment for the purpose of reducing costs, we must consider whether the resulting economies will be sufficient to pay not only all the normal operating expenses, but also adequate return on the investment as well. If our accounting conscience permits us to include it as an element in burden, well and good, if not, we must still retain it somewhere in the chain from cost to profit.

Thus far, we have spoken only of burdens being distributed as a percentage on labor, but if machine rates are to be used it will be more direct to set them simply as hourly rates for the use of the machines. This eliminates any variations arising from different wage rates of the operators. For instance, the rates for the machines listed in a preceding paragraph might reasonably be:

Hot forging group	\$10.00 per hr.
Stamping press	\$15.00 per hr.
Work-bench	\$15.00 per hr.
Miller	\$15.00 per hr.

These figures are supposed to be the actual cost of op-

making the different machines or processes, but state some of the elements, the depreciation, usual for floor space, etc., based on fixed annual charges, the setting of the hourly rates involves an estimate as to the probable number of hours the machine will operate in a year. Two machines might be exactly similar in all respects and all requirements, but if one is to operate twice as many hours per year as the other, its rate will be lower. The following is a condensed example:

	Machine A	Machine B
Cost of machine, per year	\$1,200	\$1,200
Cost of depreciation, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of floor space, per year	\$50	\$50
Cost of power, per year	\$50	\$50
Cost of labor, per year	\$1,000	\$1,000
Cost of material, per year	\$1,000	\$1,000
Cost of maintenance, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of overhead, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of interest, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of taxes, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of insurance, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of freight, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of storage, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of waste, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of scrap, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of loss, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of profit, per year	\$100	\$100
Cost of total, per year	\$3,000	\$3,000

It is known as a "Make-up of Expenses Chart" form and provides columns for allocating the rates from time to time to basic costs and conditions change. On the back of this form is another, marked "Record of Plant and Property," for keeping a complete record of the purchase, cost, depreciation, etc. This is shown in Fig. 2.

Machine rates, as so much in operating hours, may be looked on as a kind of wages earned by the machine to pay for their upkeep, operation and supplies, just as the wages earned by the workmen are to pay their living expenses. These are credits to the man and the machine. In the case of the man, it is necessary to keep complete detailed payroll records, for workmen must receive their exact personal earnings. But machines are nothing about this, except for statistical purposes, there is no necessity for recording individual machine earnings.

From the cost side, however, the case is different. When costs are built up from direct material, direct labor and departmental overheads, the latter will include allowances at averaged rates for the operating expenses of the machines. We have seen that, however well such averaged rates may work out in wide-scale, they will not give correct results in detail, for the hourly rates of different sorts of machines vary too greatly. To obtain accurate costs on parts, machine rate barometers must be used. There is the same reason for charging each machine's earnings

to a job that there is for charging each workman's earnings. Indeed, there is usually much more reason, for the machine rates on a job are usually higher than the workman's rates, sometimes much higher, as seen in the examples above. Often, indeed, instead of figuring wages with great accuracy and adding bonuses at rough average percentages, it would be more nearly correct to figure the bonuses accurately, at machine rates times hours, and add the labor at averaged percentages. Does this seem ridiculous? It would be the most logical way whereas the barometer runs over 100 per cent.

The meaning of this is plain. If it is necessary to carry on cost systems in which the labor costs are posted in detail to individual orders, then the machine barometers, or hourly machine rates, should be figured and posted to them in the same way. In such case each man-machine total must bear both of these rates and both extensions. Tickets must also be made for men working away from machines and for time machines are idle and not in

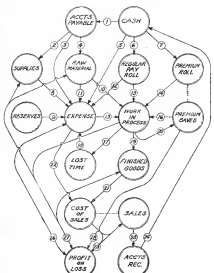


Fig. 3

STATE OF ACCOUNTS REMARKS ON THE BALANCE SHEET

1	Assets of current account
2	Assets of permanent account
3	Assets of special account
4	Assets of reserve account
5	Assets of capital account
6	Assets of interest account
7	Assets of dividend account
8	Assets of profit account
9	Assets of loss account
10	Assets of depreciation account
11	Assets of amortization account
12	Assets of depletion account
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14	Assets of depletion account
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97	Assets of depletion account
98	Assets of depletion account
99	Assets of depletion account
100	Assets of depletion account

Fig. 4

operation. This is the logical and correct. If unusual extensions of the ordinary detailed cost system. It is, of course, very laborious; but it has been done, to the satisfaction of clerical expense, extension of cost-type, and disburse of cost accounting.

It is the question of this whole series of articles that in productive costs (and also for materials, labor and overheads) such cost keeping methods are slow, laborious, inaccurate, expensive, unsound and usually unnecessary. On the other hand, costs which are based on well-made specifications are immediate, easy, accurate, and economical. This applies to the use of machine rate barometers as well as to direct labor and direct material.

Divergences Should Be Made Known

In order that costs may be based on specifications, it is necessary either that the work be done exactly as specified or, where not, that the divergences be made known at once and accounted for. Divergences there always will be. It is the method of modern cost accounting wherever possible, to set up standards which can be and should be followed, to do no further clerical work on the cost of items which are in accordance with these standards, but to report all divergences, as in their nature, amounts, and causes, and to concentrate attention on these divergences. If investigation shows that the standards are wrong, they and the standard costs will at once be corrected, but if the divergences are due to delays, losses, errors, or breakdowns, the costs of these will be charged, not to the jobs on which they happened to occur, but to accounts covering their causes and the departments responsible. These accounts are expense accounts and a part of the departmental overheads. They will enter into these overheads, or into the machine rates, and be distributed over and borne by all the jobs done by the departments and machines responsible for them. Through this channel they enter into the standard costs.

The amount of clerical labor required by this method will be less than that required for keeping the old-style detailed costs, particularly so if the latter involved much check-charge barometers. The clerical effort thus displaced may, for a time, be invested in the building up of the

system of standards. Costs thus determined by standards, including current bonuses with allowances for average delays and losses, will be far more dependable than any offered by the older type detailed cost system.

The means required for these specifications costs have all been discussed in earlier articles of this series. They include full specifications of all material and labor, pre-written material tickets and labor orders, and methods for scheduling and dispatching work. The methods for immediate reporting of divergences are as follows:

The three reports will give out all productive material



Fig. 5

other than that on the standard specification, unless specially reflected by a special ticket. These special tickets are the immediate source of information as to discrepancies in material.

Labor tickets will be written in advance, in duplicate and as self-balanced slips, and will show the standard time allowances on the job. By the methods already described, these tickets, when turned in "complete," show the actual time taken, and the time saved or lost. The duplicate copies, sorted by departments and into three groups, "time saved," "time lost," and "noach," give the basis for a daily breakdown of time losses according to their causes. The original copies serve first as means to compute and accumulate any premiums to be paid to workers for time saved, and then as the basis of journal entries, weekly or monthly, accumulating in total for time lost charges and time saved credits. These accounting transactions and the results involved are shown in Figs. 3, 4 and 5.

Only Five Transactions Unusual

Inspection will show that nearly all the transactions indicated on this chart of accounts show in three signs and the use of the usual extensive accounting system. The only unusual ones are Nos. 10, 12, 13, 20, 26, and 28, having to do with the time lost and time saved accounts. While these have been added as weekly or monthly postings, the entire statement of detailed order cost accounting is gone. All that now remains of the old type cost system is the collection and distribution of overhead expense items and the checking of their totals with the business entered on cover sheet.

This completes a description, in the briefest form, of what we have termed the modern way of cost determination and control. We may now pass on to consider some phases of cost application resulting from the principles and methods which have been described.

In an earlier paragraph a tabulation was presented comparing the overhead rules on two similar machines, one of which was expected to operate more hours in a year than the other. Two elements in their expense were shown, as follows:

(a) Fixed expense, made up of factors whose total does not vary, no matter whether the shop is slack or busy.

(b) Variable expense, consisting of factors whose total varies directly with the values of factors going through the shop.

The total expense, consisting of fixed and variable expense, is made up of two elements like these. Of the first, executive salaries would be an example; of the second, a pure example is not so easy to find, though many examples exist along with the first.

Some very important matters depend on the relation between fixed and variable expense, and it is desirable to know how to determine that relation. This is done by preparing an expense budget for each of several possible operating conditions, one of which is that working at 100 per cent capacity, and at several other smaller and larger capacities. For each of these, estimate as nearly as possible the number of productive and non-productive men that would be engaged in each department and their

work. Likewise, also, each of the other items that go to make up expense. It will be found that some things will remain fixed for some parts of the range, but, at certain points, will jump suddenly to other fixed values. Such would be supervisory salaries, jumping when it became necessary to add a foreman, assistant foreman, or assistant superintendent; or power, when another boiler or engine had to be brought into service. On the whole, however, there should be a fairly steady increase with increasing percentages in production. This may be illustrated by the table shown at the bottom of the page.

A Minimum Value of \$200,000

A graph of these values, with the curves prolonged backward to the ordinate for zero capacity, is shown in Fig. 6. It is seen that while the direct material and labor costs fall from the value set at 0 per cent of capacity, the total expense and so the total cost start from a minimum value of \$200,000. This minimum may be considered as the fixed element in expense and cost, while the amount by which the actual expense rises above this minimum may be considered as its variable element, and therefore as one variable element in total cost. The other variable cost elements are direct material and labor.

It is also seen that when, for these particular conditions, the volume of production falls appreciably below 25 per cent of normal, profits disappear and losses occur. The remedy for this lies in (a) cost reduction, (b) increased sales effort, and (c) lower selling prices to stimulate sales. At this point we are concerned only with the cost of the three. There is, here, far more to be justified in reducing prices to keep the plant running in a full season?

"Hidden Profit" Reduced

It is sometimes said that prices reduced even to the point of showing individual losses will carry a "hidden profit," meaning that they help to absorb some of the fixed overhead, and so to reduce the burden on other work. The fixed overhead must be carried anyway, either on an arbitrary LIFO basis, or on a basis of "what it is." If there is not business enough to carry it, it will show up at the end of the year as a loss. In a slack condition of business, any additional orders that can be obtained over the otherwise minimum order will be profitable. Their fixed element and the variable element in their overhead, are just paying their way. Anything above this becomes an additional contribution toward paying the total fixed overhead, and so reduces the loss at the end of the year. This may be illustrated by the following example:

In the tabulation of production and costs given above, condition (b), 50 per cent normal production, shows a cost of \$800,000 at the end of the year, all other best best (full normal prices). Under this condition the sales are but \$500,000 and the cost of this is \$850,000. The variable element in this cost is less than that of \$200,000 (the fixed expense), or is but \$350,000, which is 75 per cent of the sales. If, under these conditions, additional business

can be obtained at any price above 75 per cent of normal, then, according to what has just been said, it will reduce the \$800,000 loss to the end of the year. Suppose that the 20 per cent reduction or extra demand will bring in 10 per cent more business, amounting at the reduced price, to \$400,000 increased sales. Since all the \$200,000 fixed cost has already been covered by the \$350,000 cost of the additional business, the new business can be manufactured for its variable expense alone, or for 75 per cent of its full price cost—that is, for only \$300,000 additional cost. This gives a profit, at sales of \$200,000 on this additional business, and reduces the loss of the year by that amount. These results may be tabulated as follows:

10 per cent additional business	10 per cent additional business
Normal Sales of \$800,000	10 per cent additional business
Normal Price Cost \$800,000	10 per cent additional business
Normal Price Cost \$800,000	10 per cent additional business
Normal Price Cost \$800,000	10 per cent additional business
Normal Price Cost \$800,000	10 per cent additional business
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Normal Price Cost \$800,000	10 per cent additional business
Normal Price Cost \$800,000	10 per cent additional business

This course of action, though taken at an apparent loss so far as old cost methods would show, would yet get in the necessary \$200,000 more than if it had not been taken. In the sales response to this offer would be a smaller offered discount, the resultant advantage would be greater, but in no case should the net price be lower than the variable element in the cost. Rather, for safety, it should be at least a little higher. Such action should be taken only as an emergency measure, when the plant is not operating to capacity, and should be discontinued promptly as production comes up to normal. Nor should it be opened for indiscriminate use by salesmen, but only under control by the executive with a full understanding both of its theory and the facts. The above discussion shows the importance of having an accurate analysis of overhead expense into its two elements, fixed and variable. Under competitive conditions, the result of the mismanagement given may depend entirely on that knowledge.

The old type detailed cost system or any system which burdens all business at similar rates without regard to distinction between variable and fixed expense, will, of course, as such additional business comes in, put a loss proportionately even greater than that on the primary business situated at normal rates. To bring promptly to attention the facts regarding these distinctions, not only is a different method of expense accounting required, but, as indicated in an earlier paragraph, the allocation of expense must be made according to pre-arranged budgets.

Methods Applicable to a Single Department

The methods indicated by the table and graph, covering the whole plant, are equally applicable to a single department or machine. The department's variable expense, and the application of these methods those elements must be determined. It is, however, unnecessary to do this for so many business conditions as were shown in the above table, and here is where the budgeting comes in.

In a budget prepared in advance, we are furnished with an estimate of the amount of business to be expected and the expense of handling it. It is in this particular connection for all possible orders, that the department's variable expense, and the application of these methods those elements must be determined. It is, however, unnecessary to do this for so many business conditions as were shown in the above table, and here is where the budgeting comes in.

loss (and the desirability of carrying loyal and efficient customers of an organization through a slack time, even when without profit, will not be lost sight of).

When such a budget of sales and costs has been prepared, it will indicate the distribution to be made of the different expense items. Possibly some, which cannot economically be carried by production, either existing or planned, will be indicated at the start as deferred items or losses. Life time of machines earned by normal business

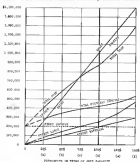


Fig. 6. Graph of cost elements and profits for different capacities.

conditions may fall in this category. Then, under some considerable change in conditions, such as re-allocating the costs (predetermined) will follow these expense distributions. If, under such circumstances, some unusual business must be handled, disregarding fixed expense for example, the handling of it is simple, for as estimates show thereby how it was taken and how it is to be carried. If in its manufacture, there is any deviation from the methods and costs contemplated in the estimate, this will be at once brought to light, as described in a previous paragraph on discrepancies. The handling of this kind of business by the old detailed cost methods would have led to almost inextinguishable confusion and could not have been carried through.

Although the budget is far from exhausted, we will bring this discussion of it to a close at this point, with the comment that the modern methods which have been described, although not complicated nor laborious—less so, in fact, than the older ones—must be controlled by talent somewhat broader than was usual with the older systems. There is more need for intelligent understanding of the aims and methods, for interpretation of the results, for co-operation with the engineering, stores and producing departments, and above all for thorough understanding and co-operation between the departments of engineering, cost and production and the executives of the company. And all of these must keep constantly in mind the principle with which this series of articles opened. That is, that at the foundation of all successful modern management is exact, centralized knowledge of what, how, when, and where.

Per Cent of Capacity	Direct Material	Direct Labor	Overhead Expense	Total Cost	Total Fixed Cost	Loss Profit
(a) 25	\$100,000	\$75,000	\$275,000	\$450,000	\$250,000	L. \$150,000
(b) 50	200,000	150,000	300,000	550,000	300,000	L. 80,000
(c) 75	300,000	225,000	330,000	750,000	350,000	P. 10,000
(d) 100	400,000	300,000	360,000	1,060,000	400,000	P. 120,000
(e) 125	500,000	375,000	390,000	1,265,000	450,000	P. 200,000
(f) 150	600,000	450,000	420,000	1,470,000	500,000	P. 300,000

BUYER'S LOG BOOK

Electric Furnace

ELECTRIC FURNACES of the 80 K. W. circular pit type for heat treating airplane crank cases, cylinder heads, pistons, and other parts, are now being manufactured by The Electric Furnace Co. of Salem, O. These furnaces accommodate circular steel billets 55 in. in diameter and 60 in. deep and have electrical capacity for heating to a temperature of 1,600 deg. F., 300 lb. of steel and 650 lb. of aluminum in 1½ hr. The actual pro-



An electric furnace used for cylinder heads.

duction and time cycle depends on the analysis of the steel being treated.

These furnaces are equipped with two pilot recording temperature controllers for automatically controlling the temperature of the equipment within a range of plus or minus 5 deg. C.

Power "Dolly"

PROBABLY THE hardest work in airport operations is the handling of planes between hangars and field, and usually several attendants are required for this purpose. To reduce this operation to a one-man job, the American Eagle Aircraft Distributors, Inc., 85 Hingham St., New Rochelle, N. Y., has developed a power "dolly."

The power dolly consists mainly of an extensible chassis and driver's seat with a crane attached at the rear to



A photograph showing the use of the power "Dolly."

pick up the tail end of the plane to be moved. The crane is operated by hydraulic pressure from the engine of the extensible. It can be raised and lowered without the operator leaving the seat and it is designed to accommodate any size plane.

This machine was built by C. Robleson, vice president and general manager of the company and production is planned if warranted by the demand.

AVIATION
March 14, 1939

SIDE SLIPS

By ROBERT R. OSBORN

Mr. L. C. M., of Highlandtown, Baltimore, Md., sends to a note—"Excluded plane first on subject from the Baltimore Sun of January 24 describing a rather unusual method of landing."

THE LEAP

From the top of the runway—fly.
Look not down, look not high.
That without fear you shall land,
While both bolts lie fast!

The Interjet Aviator stepped in the other day to show us a new test about a wealthy young chap who is planning to make an extended log game hunting trip in the Arctic. In describing the equipment he proposed to use the article said, "A special vaporizer to convert sea water into a drinkable liquid is another feature to guard against potential disaster." The Interjet Aviator said that this was the first landing he had of the apparatus his boss—bigger had been using lately, and he was on his way around to warn him that it wasn't drinkable liquid and if he delivered any more stuff like that, the potential disaster would become a reality.

The news item about the pilot—big game hunter also stated—"To prepare himself as a first-class pilot he flew last year on the European K. L. M. Air Line." We suppose he flew the mail a while to get the second class rating after solving in the First Person Group.

Mr. J. E. M. of Chicago sends in a clipping and a comment thereon—"There's a note on Mr. Stuck's new airplane, as described in the retrospective series of the extended Chicago Daily News. I suppose Stuck has it covered to the patent." The clipping shows a picture of the new aircraft with the caption, "A Stuck's dolly." The aircraft's framework is of metal and it is covered with cloth. The picture was taken from the roof of the hangar at Glendale, Cal.

Aside to W. C. N. of San Francisco. You'll have to excuse that slip on the patrol form. We're being positive on an every newspaper situation lately in this space they probably can't tell our mistakes from the others.

An interesting news item is called to our attention by W. C. of Sacramento, Calif.—"Los Angeles, Dec. 17—An airplane pilot has credited to a cowboy without getting across a half acre. They made some Albert Elmer to local lands and he landed on a bull. The bull was killed and the plane damaged, but Fisher escaped serious injury." Having seen the wreck a half acre of a friend's place after he had acquired a forced landing in the field one day we'd say that Mr. Fisher knew what he was doing in landing on the bull and settling the matter at the outset.

The latest report by the Aeronautical Chamber of Commerce stating that commercial aircraft production in 1938 had increased 145 per cent. appeared at nearly the same time as the report from Curtiss Field that a student there had washed out three ships in one half landing, indicating that the crash rate has increased 200 per cent.

AVIATION
March 15, 1939



A Pledge

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See Handbook for New Pilot's Book



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AERONAUTICAL ENGINEERING SECTION

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By Richard C. Greby

Mechanical Engineer, Department of Commerce

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By W. M. Dunlap

Metallurgical Division, Congress of America

Patents Issued

Technical Reviews

March 16, 1929

Fundamentals of Airplane Fitting Design

By RICHARD C. GAZLEY

Aeronautical Engineer, Department of Commerce

FITTINGS form a most important part of airplane design than a casual consideration would tend to reveal and deserve more attention than is usually accorded them. They are nearly always in such positions that failure of one would wreck the airplane. They are necessarily points of contact and must distribute heavy local loads properly into adjacent structural members.

In addition a fitting is usually of such a complex shape as to be the most difficult part of the airplane to analyze. It must never fail in the obvious expected manner but twists and distorts with consequent shifting of the

tail. It sometimes happens that the eccentric moment alone is large enough to cause failure.

This point which appears to be as simple as to be obvious is entirely overlooked in a surprisingly large number of designs. Fig. 1 will present the idea clearly.

Members A and B are longerons. C and D are members of the fuselage side track. Member D is eccentric by the distance X.

The load in member D is P_D .

The eccentric moment is the $P_D X$.

This moment will be divided between members A, B, C and D in proportion to their respective moments of inertia, provided they are all of the same material. Each of these members should therefore be investigated for the effect of its share of the eccentric moment plus the instantaneous axial load acting upon it.

There is a proviso to the above example which introduces another principle of fitting design. That principle is the fact that no fitting is of any value unless properly attached to the structural members which it is intended to hold together. If the joint in Fig. 1 were riveted, the rivets holding member C might be as spaced or as few as to be incapable of carrying any appreciable resisting moment. In that case alone the entire moment would be borne by the remaining three members which are more rigidly attached.

It occasionally happens that the method of attaching a fitting weakens the member to a figure below its design strength. This could be caused by drilling too many holes, by heating or welding during the process of welding, or by placing the control of the attachment eccentric with

vertical bolts through the spars. This method removes material from the spars in such a manner as to effect approximately their moment of inertia. The weight saving it has been found necessary to make the fitting wrap around the spar to prevent splitting when vertical bolts are used. When the extra weight of the box is considered, and the difficulty of fitting it, one believes that a different type of design could be used to better advantage.

These points may, of course, be forgotten by any designer who considers his chances of mechanics and they usually are. One factor, however, which is not usually known and has been disclosed by service experience, is the effect of vibrating or reversing loads upon joints.

It has been found that bolted joints, unless secured to a perfect fit and provided with ample bearing area, will increasingly pound out in a surprisingly short time under reversing or repeated loads. Hence the holes begin to enlarge. Of course, the process accelerates and frequently the fitting either breaks out or becomes dangerously weak before it is noticed. This is so reasonably true that no joints should be spaced in the design and assembly of such joints in order to prevent its occurrence in the future.

The writer believes that this point cannot be over-emphasized and that its importance is not fully realized because a number of cases of sloppy rivet fit and insufficient bearing area in bolt holes have come to light. In one case the owner of a large airplane, who had been told a few hours previously that he could not keep the wings in proper alignment, even though he was constantly adjusting the wires. Upon investigation it was discovered that he was rapidly pulling the bolt out of one of his wing struts. The bolt hole had been drilled carelessly in the first place and its original oval shape had allowed the bolt sufficient space in which to pound it to larger proportions. There was enough bearing area under the bolt in this instance to withstand the design load in a single pull but not enough to grant against repeated stresses. Lieutenant-Commander Robinson, who is in charge of the U. S. Naval Base at San Diego, and, as is frequently published abroad, "Designers are continually repeating the bearing strength of their designs—the repair of the structure on which they have become situated, is a major item in maintenance."

Require 20 Per Cent Margins of Safety

In all cases except such extremes as that attachment fittings a satisfactory fit will result if a calculated margin of safety of 20 per cent is incorporated in the fitting and the bolt holes are carefully reamed to size. These attachment fittings unfortunately fall into the class for which design loads are impossible to calculate with any reasonable degree of accuracy. The indeterminate nature of the load imposed upon them and the fact that the severity of the application of these loads, combine to render the design of the unit highly arbitrary and subject to revision if actual operation in a particular case is satisfactory. The fittings in that gear have been in service for many years and have been subjected to loads which it has been found here that very carefully reamed bolt holes are the only alternative to excess fitting weight. Although this offers a good example of the effect of repeated or reversing loads the magnitude of the imposed loads is not comparable to that we can obtain on quantitative data from tests in this manner. A series of laboratory experiments along this line would be comparatively easy to perform and would be of considerable benefit.

An absolute knowledge of the physical properties of the materials actually incorporated in an airplane is another essential which would appear to be almost but which

has been frequently neglected in commercial aircraft, with consequent trouble.

In the case of steel it is so happens that the market is flooded with so-called "commercial" steel, which is being purchased for use as aircraft. This grade of steel may possess any physical properties which are inferior to those of S. A. E. specification 1020. In physical properties and chemical composition are not guaranteed to the purchaser. It is, consequently, cheap and popular. Airplane designers working with steel plate fittings almost invariably assume that 1020 steel, or better, will be used and they design accordingly. The manufacturer purchases a cheap grade of commercial steel without specification and check static tests he not only lowers the strength of his airplane but may actually make the machine a distinct menace by unwittingly including materials which are brittle or soft or contain segregated grain structure and other weakening imperfections. Unless the designer bases his strength calculations upon specifications which the material manufacturer guarantees to and does furnish, he is wasting his time.

Selection of Material Is Important

All of which brings up the point of the selection of the most efficient material in a given case. Availability narrows the range of choice to a comparatively few materials. At the present stage of the industry an airplane manufacturer must order his materials in comparatively small lots and must depend upon prompt delivery of material which is so sufficiently common as to be in the regular stock of a supply house or mill is prohibitive in cost and takes too long to obtain.

The fitting materials which are in most common use and are consequently easily available are aluminum alloy, various grades of carbon steel, and some steel alloys such as chrome molybdenum and nickel.

A discussion of the choice of material is of course inseparable from a consideration of the type of construction to be employed. Although welded joints and riveted joints are most widely used there is much to be said in favor of bolted and cast material. Similarly, the fact that welded joints are generally employed does not mean that such joints are necessarily superior to riveted or bolted construction. The following is therefore a rather brief outline of the situation both as to material and type of construction.

Carbon steels which conform to S. A. E. specification 1020 to 1030 and chrome molybdenum steels of S. A. E. specification 4130 are in general use because they lend themselves readily to welding.

All steels are somewhat warping during a welding process and are therefore injured but some are affected less than others. Chromum chrome molybdenum steels are injured less than any other high strength alloy and are consequently very desirable for parts to be welded, provided that little or no reshaping is required. Machining and forming has treated chrome molybdenum steel is so difficult to machine and tough to work that the cost of replacement or changing of dies and cutting tools is an appreciable expense. It is, of course, possible to buy annealed sheets of the material which will adapt itself very easily to such machining and welding. This would be desirable and much less expensive than the process of life in excess of those given by 1020 steel that the added cost of raw material would not be justified.

One method which is occasionally adopted is that of turning and welding the fitting from annealed alloy steel and then treating the finished product to the desired degree of tempering. This method appears on its face to be

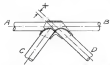


Fig. 1—Diagram illustrating an eccentric moment in fitting attachment. Member D is eccentric by the distance X in the drawing.

applied loads. Because of these facts fitting design has a tendency toward the arbitrary. Empirical methods and formulas are the most satisfactory means of analysis and design but their application must be tempered with good sense and a thorough knowledge of the subject.

A complicated fitting can present as many problems severally that its design takes on all the aspects of attempting to win a three-ring circus. There are, however, a number of fundamental principles which always apply, and a thorough appreciation of these fundamentals is essential to the design of safe and satisfactory airplanes.

Perhaps the most accurate of these fundamentals is the principle of consistency. It is important that a fitting be so designed as to join the neutral axes of all structural members as a common point. This is not always possible, of course, and in such cases one alternative must be made for the member which reacts from the necessary consistency. An eccentric moment tends to rotate the fitting. This rotation must be resisted by the structural members to which the fitting is attached. Simply allows the members to rotate have been designed with only sufficient strength to withstand the moment axial loads which may be imposed upon them. If the eccentric moment and this maximum axial load occur simultaneously the member will be overloaded and may

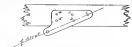


Fig. 2—Illustrating an improper attachment between a wing spar and a lift strut.

the neutral axes of the members. Of these three the last mentioned is the rarest concern and sometimes bring about a dangerous situation.

Fig. 2 illustrates an improper attachment between a wing spar and a lift strut. It will be seen that bolt 1 and 2 carry most of the imposed load and that bolt 3 is practically useless. Unless bolts 1 and 2 are strong enough to carry the entire load, without causing undue elongation of the bolts, the joint will fail.

A prevalent example of sufficient fitting attachment occurs in cases where spar fittings are attached by means of

logical and good, but actually possesses a number of faults in the first place it is expensive. The best treatment of steel necessitates proper equipment and skilled workmen, if performed by the airplane manufacturer, and extra cost if done outside the factory.

The most serious objection, however, arises from the fact that heat treatment, particularly of complex shapes, causes internal stresses in the fitting which are not wholly relieved by normalizing. The external evidence of these internal forces is the distortion which frequently accompanies heat treatment.

Such distortion is also an evil because it involves the necessity for straightening the fitting by some means or other. If this straightening is accomplished on the cold fitting we have the undesirable effect of cold working added to the regular undesirable effect of heat treatment. Stresses and the result is a fitting which is dangerous to carry exactly a certain load but which may be actually working above its capacity before any load is placed upon it.

The above facts apply particularly to alloy steel fittings but the effects of hard welding, which, of course, is a form of heat treatment, are such as to extend the same line of reasoning to all welded steel plate fittings.

The effect of the unusual distribution of heat conducted by welding is to produce internal stress and external distortion. These distorting stresses are frequently of sufficient magnitude to crack the fitting. The writer has seen plate chrome molybdenum steel plate split open while cooling after being welded into a fitting. In this particular case the fitting was scrapped and no harm resulted except the sad introduction into the shop of a strong smell. If the distorting stresses are not quite sufficient to rupture the part, the cracks will not develop until after the fitting has been placed in service and might escape detection until they cause an accident.

These things occur even in cases where the welding is carefully and skillfully done. If the welds are not cut skilled or make an occasional error anything might result. The material around the weld may be buried so that it is seriously weakened or may not be heated sufficiently to ob-

viously erode the surfaces but they served to good examples of bad practice.

One of the most recent examples of this sort of fitting has been observed and corrected on approximately 25 per cent. of the airplane designs submitted to the Department for approval. On these airplanes the designer had specified the stabilizer adjuster post the stabilizer front spar by means of a lug which was butt welded to the spar. Fig. 3 shows this dangerous type of fitting and a possible remedy. A sleeve should also be placed around the post at this point if it is a thin wall in order to prevent and to concentrate stress. Two of the earlier types of airplanes crashed and several fatalities are recorded as a result of the breaking of one of these butt welded lugs.

Effect of Repeated Bending Loads

Repeated bending loads, particularly when rapidly applied, have a bad effect on welded joints. They appear to cause cracks in the material just at the edge of the weld. This trouble has been most noticeable in engine mount structures and has been avoided by placing gussets at the joints.

It is well to mention one other peculiarity of this type of joint. Two plates of the same given thickness are difficult to join satisfactorily. When the thickness of one plate is more than three times the thickness of the other the joint is almost certain to be unsatisfactory even if the heavier piece is pre-heated. The difference in time necessary to thoroughly heat the two parts is usually sufficient to cause the loss of the thin piece or insufficient fusion to the thick one.

In addition to these facts tank welding has the disadvantage of not being adaptable to quantity production. Of course large quantity production is not in existence as yet but it seems to be almost an impossibility factor in projected designs.

All of the above statements apply to hand torch welding on carbon steel or chrome molybdenum steel plates. Other methods of welding are being experimented with. Atomic welding appears to have some points in its favor. Inefficient clamping does to form a proper joint for moment loads because torch welding is almost the universal process.

Other materials might conceivably produce better results but here again there is very little available information.

Of the alloy steels, nickel (S & K 2330) does not weld satisfactorily and chrome mangan (S & L 5623) does a few air-cold satisfactorily have attempted to carry loads by welding nickel and bolt heads to structural members. This is a very unsatisfactory proposition and cannot be counted upon to produce reliable results. Aluminum alloy sheet and tubing welds satisfactorily but obtain only the strength of soft aluminum after welding and cannot then be heat treated satisfactorily. It can be used in this way only in places where strength is a minor consideration. Fuel tanks and such things are sometimes made of aluminum alloy and welded at the seams.

Fittings of aluminum alloy used to be riveted or bolted. Riveted construction introduces a number of problems, which, if not properly understood, occasionally lead one to the belief that this type of construction is impractical and unusable. It is, in fact, a matter of fact, a reliable means of fabrication and a number of tools now on the market help to make it easily adaptable to quantity production.

There are several features about riveted joints which make the most satisfactory of their strength impossible. Rivets are occasionally imperfect in spite of careful heat treatment, skilled bending, and painstaking inspection.

Rivets with cracked heads, when dispersed, should of course, always be removed and replaced with fresh ones. Internal imperfections cannot be seen, however, and the possibility of their presence introduces a certain element of doubt concerning the absolute integrity of the structure.

Another manufacturing imperfection is introduced by the fact that holes in the parts to be joined do not always match perfectly. The rivet inserted in the imperfectly matched holes will usually not fill the entire space and consequently will bear only on one side in one of the members. This means that the rivet can carry loads in one direction only unless the rest of the group deforms sufficiently to allow bearing upon the imperfect one. If such deformation takes place it will locate the rivet and hasten the breaking down of the joint under repeated or reversing loads.

The same situation occurs if one of the rivet holes is drilled so as to be out of round, or oval in shape, or if the drill is not centered accurately and then strikes an unaligned hole.

These things, together with the fact that the imposed loads from the attached members are nearly always unsatisfactorily constant with respect to the rivet group, introduce local eccentricities and consequent unbalanced stresses in the fitting. The magnitude of such stresses will vary, of course, with the variation of conditions. However, considerable eccentricities are reduced to a minimum, the design is properly heat-treated and carefully loaded, and careful inspection of the finished job is conducted, it is safe to say that a calculated strength 20 per cent. in excess of the design load will insure a reliable and entirely satisfactory fitting. This figure is based upon experience gained from reports of a number of airplanes which have incorporated this type of construction and it is therefore purely empirical. About four years ago a well-known aircraft industry, in which all details of design and construction are of the best, discovered that riveted fittings were designed to incorporate only a strength equal to the design load and were, therefore, unsatisfactory. They did not stand up in service. This discovery then serving to the conservative side and strictly observed a rule which required all riveted fittings to be designed for 150 per cent.

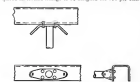


Fig. 4—Diagram showing a drop wire lug in which rivets are made to work in tension. This is another example of bad practice.

of the calculated design load. Profiling by this experience, another equally commendable factory has built more than one hundred airplanes, with riveted construction, upon the basis of 30 per cent. excess and the results have been entirely satisfactory.

Another fundamental rule is that rivets cannot be made to work in tension. Fig. 4 illustrates a drag wire lag in which this principle is used. One is frequently tempted to incorporate such a device in a fitting but it absolutely will not work. The cold working which has been per-

formed on the rivet makes it very weak at the base of the head where the head will pull off upon the application of only a small load.

In order to save as much weight as possible it is necessary to group the rivets as close together as they can be spaced. When rivets are in line with the direction of the force the minimum spacing can be easily established. It should be such as to provide a shearing strength between holes which is equal to the bearing strength of the hole

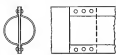


Fig. 5—A diagram illustrating the problem of finding the minimum permissible spacing between rivets.

or to the shearing strength of the rivet; whichever is the least. An example follows:

Given the joint in Fig. 5 with 3/4 in. aluminum alloy rivets. The plate is 0.05 in. aluminum alloy, heat-treated to a minimum tensile strength of 55,000 lb. per sq. in. the shear strength of the rivet is 27,000 lb. per sq. in. To find the minimum permissible spacing between rivets.

The cross-sectional area of each rivet is .8625 sq. in. each nail is working in double shear so that its shearing strength is equal to .8625 x 27,000 = 23,363 lb.

The thickness of both shear-resistant members is more than the thickness of the center plate, so that the bearing strength of the plate will be critical. The bearing strength of each hole in the plate equals .125 x .095 = 75,000 = 890 lb.

The shearing strength of the rivet is the lesser value and will decrease the distance between holes. The shearing strength of aluminum alloy sheet is 27,000 lb. per sq. in. where the sheet is thicker than .0625 in.

The required shear area between holes in the plate is $\frac{740}{27000} = .0274$ sq. in.

The usual method of calculation is to assume that the cross-sectional area between the nearest edges of the holes works in double shear. The required distance between the edges of the holes in the plate is then equal to $\frac{.0274}{2 \times .095} = .144$ in. and the distance between centers is $.144 + .125 = .269$ in.

When aluminum alloy sheet is less than .0625 in. thick it is advisable to design for a shear strength of not more than 20,000 lb. per sq. in. It is therefore necessary to check the spacing in the shear-resistant members.

Each side will carry half the load. The required shear area on each side equals $\frac{370}{20000} = .0185$ sq. in.

The required spacing equals $\frac{.0185}{2 \times .095} = .193$ in.

The distance between centers of the rivets in Fig. 5 thus must be at least $.183 + .125 = .309$ or approximately 5/16 in.

The spacing at right angles to the line of action of the load may be calculated on a somewhat similar basis using

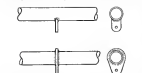


Fig. 3—A typical example of faulty design found by Department of Commerce engineers in the attachment of adjusting parts to the front spar of stabilizer.

tail power (from between parts). These welds may usually be detected by very careful scrutiny but there is a considerable element of doubt even in the minds of specialists on many cases.

This uncertainty is the principal reason for avoiding the use of welds in pure tension. A weld, weld may be properly applied, by either sort of a good specimen but its tensile strength depends entirely too much on the faithfulness of a welder to make it a safe proposition. As a matter of fact several tension welds have recently broken loose in commercial aircraft. They were approved by the Department of Commerce because their failures would not

not very greatly below the melting-point, then, when the torch is applied to any one point, the additional expansion of this will be small and its tendency to cause distortion. However, local preheating must be applied with care, especially in castings, for the purpose of strengthening ribs, or other devices which tend to prevent the free expansion of the parts, can possibly lead to fractures during the preheating itself.

The preheating of the whole object is not always possible, and in such cases local preheating must be resorted to. When local preheating is adopted there is little danger of expansion cracks, provided the heating is done slowly and uniformly, and that the object is well protected from draught during welding.

A broken aluminum crank case may be taken as a typical example of a cast aluminum job requiring preheating. A crank case and broken piece are shown in Fig. 7. The crack runs in thoroughly cleaned and the broken pieces clamped in place. The crack case is placed in such a position that the cracks to be welded in is a horizontal plane. A furnace is built about the casting, using fire brick laid snugly without mortar. A sand mass

and expense which may be involved in such a procedure. As heat is applied to aluminum an expansion occurs and the metal expands. This fact is very obvious, but it is not sufficient to merely recognize and accept that fact and then finish it from further thought. It is important to analyze this phenomenon in detail with the object of applying the mechanism concerned to the actual process of welding.

The coefficient of expansion is the increase in total length per degree centigrade increase in metal temperature. The coefficient of expansion increases with increase in temperature and differs for various metals. The coefficient of expansion of aluminum is about twice as great as that of iron and one-half as much again as that of copper. This expansion is a definite thing, and that it is not some abnormal property which functions only fictitiously is shown by the fact that should bars of aluminum, copper and iron, each 1000 ft long, be heated up to 100 deg. Centigrade, the iron bar will increase in length about 13 in., the copper bar about 20 in., and the aluminum bar about 27 in. In addition to the volumetric or dimensional change due to expansion, there is also the troublesome nature of the force which produces this growth. If a bar of metal of proper length to just fit is between two fixed brackets it heated, the bar will buckle due to its tendency to increase in length. Expansion operates in all directions. If the bar is hindered from increasing its length, it will not assume its new required volume by merely becoming thicker like rubber. Of course the bar will become thicker due to expansion, but it will also increase in length. The forces which produce this expansion are elastic in nature and will not be destroyed. Therefore as the metal heats and expands, we must deal both with the new dimensions involved and also with the tremendous forces which produce this growth. The reverse action takes place as the metal cools and contracts. Aluminum, copper and iron melt at different temperatures. Aluminum melts at about 657 deg. C., copper at 1083 deg. C and iron at about 1530 deg. C. Should each of these three bars be heated to their respective melting points, the aluminum will be the shortest of the three. Therefore, not merely the coefficient of expansion must be

in choosing from the materials which are in use at the present time.

One principle of fitting design which is applicable to all types of expansion is occasioned by the fact that sharp corners are sources of stress and tears. Such corners must be strictly avoided because even small cracks are always dangerous. The end of a crack will be a point of high stress concentration when the fitting is loaded and the crack will spread rapidly in proportion which are at different magnitudes to cause failure. An excellent example of poor design along these lines has been incorporated in a recent new design of airplane and is illustrated in Fig. 8.

The drag wire lag was formed by beating two narrow parallel slots in the main fitting and bending up the crimped strip. The roots of these slots are certain to be

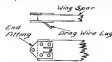


Fig. 8—A drag wire lag formed by cutting two parallel slots in the main fitting and bending up the crimped strip.

the sources of cracks which would ruin the fitting. A good general rule to observe is that all corners should be provided with generous fillets.

In this same connection it is well to remember that sharp metal will crack if bent around too short a radius. The characteristic is considerably surprising when one is attempting to crowd rivets or bolts into a small space near

a bend in the plate. The maximum inside radius of bend for heat-treated aluminum alloy sheet, for example, should be about twice the thickness of the sheet when that thickness is less than .040 in. and the bend is as much as 90 deg. For greater thicknesses the required bend radius increases. This radius varies, of course, with different materials and different physical properties and should be determined and ascertained by the designer.

In fittings which are formed from sheet metal are frequently used all sorts of curves and bends, the required bend radius increasing. This radius varies, of course, with different materials and different physical properties and should be determined and ascertained by the designer. In fittings which are formed from sheet metal are frequently used all sorts of curves and bends, the required bend radius increasing. This radius varies, of course, with different materials and different physical properties and should be determined and ascertained by the designer. In fittings which are formed from sheet metal are frequently used all sorts of curves and bends, the required bend radius increasing. This radius varies, of course, with different materials and different physical properties and should be determined and ascertained by the designer.

Another important consideration is that of corrosion. Much has been written concerning the corrosibility of particular materials and it is unnecessary to go into detail here. In addition to influencing the choice of materials, however, this factor influences the actual physical shape of a fitting. Any pockets or recesses will be seats for the collection of moisture. The interior of a hollow fitting will generally be inaccessible for inspection and periodic cleaning and painting should be carefully noted and homogeneously sealed whenever possible.

There is also the fact that thin gauge materials are more seriously injured by corrosion than thicker ones, and there are certain minimum absolute thicknesses because of this. Sheet weighing less than .035 wall thickness is never used in the primary structure of an airplane, chiefly because of the corrosion factor.

Technical Reviews

N.A.C.A. Technical Report No. 255. Two Practical Methods for the Calculation of the Horizontal Tail Area Necessary for a Steadily Stable Airplane, by Walter S. Ditch.

This report is concerned with the problem of calculation of the horizontal tail area necessary to give a steadily stable airplane. Two entirely different methods are developed, and related to simple formulas easily applied to any design combination. Detailed instructions are given for the use of the formulas, and all calculations are illustrated by examples. The relative importance of the factors influencing stability is also shown.

N.A.C.A. Technical Report No. 285. The Variation in Engine Power with Altitude Determined from Measurements in Flight with a High Dynamometer, by H. D. Gies.

The rate of change in power of aircraft engines with altitude has been the subject of considerable discussion. Only a small amount of data from direct measurements of the power delivered by airplane engines during flight, however, has been published. This report presents the results of direct measurements of the power delivered by a Liberty 12 airplane engine when with a high dynamometer at standard altitudes from sea to 13,000 ft. The results were made with the engine driven in a modified DH-4 airplane. The tests were conducted at the Langley Memorial Aeronautical Laboratory of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics.

The experimental relation of brake horsepower to alti-

tude is compared with two theoretical relations and with the experimental results, for a second Liberty 12 engine, given in N.A.C.A. Technical Report No. 282. The rate of change in power with altitude of a third Liberty engine, mounted with a calibrated propeller, is also given for comparison.

The data presented substantiate the theoretical relation of brake horsepower to altitude based on the correction of ground level indicated horsepower, changes in atmospheric conditions, and the comparison with the subsequent deduction of friction horsepower corrected for altitude. The equation for this relation is

$$BHP_a = BHP_g \left(\left(\frac{P_a}{P_g} \right) \left(\frac{T_g}{T_a} \right)^{.8} \right) \left(\left(1 + \frac{\lambda - \lambda_0}{a} \right) - \left(\frac{\lambda - \lambda_0}{a} \right) \right)$$

where P is the absolute atmospheric pressure, T is the absolute temperature, λ is the mechanical efficiency of the engine at sea level and λ_0 is the ratio of mechanical efficiency to friction horsepower at sea level. The subscripts a and g denote sea level and altitude conditions, respectively.

N.A.C.A. Technical Report No. 286. Pressure Distribution on PW-9 Wing Model From—18 deg. Through 90 deg. Angle of Attack. By Oscar E. Loefer, Jr.



Fig. 7—A broken aluminum crank case. Fig. 8—The same crank case bent up for welding.

ment of charcoal is placed in the furnace, heating it against the walls. The most serious of charcoal depends upon the use of the crank case. Enough should be used to bring the casting to the proper temperature in about thirty minutes. It is important that the fire be held under control and the casting heated slowly and only to a uniform temperature. The upper limit should be 850 deg. F. The two following methods are given for determining the correct temperature for welding.

(1) Cold aluminum gives a metallic sound when becomes duller in the temperature is raised. At the temperature required for welding, there is no longer a metallic ring.

(2) Heat the cutting no more than required to leave a char mark on iron rubbed with a pine stick. Aluminum in this condition is extremely fragile and must be handled with great care.

As a welder becomes experienced in handling aluminum, he will at times be able to use a low temperature oil or gas burner for preheating. In this case the preheating is done locally along the crack, just ahead of the welding flame, so that the welding heat will not run on too sudden a rise in temperature and cause further cracking.

The work should be as supported that the outer side of the weld is free, in order that the added thickness of metal on the weld may form a slight ledge on the outer side line which can afterwards be dressed down if desired. A strip of asbestos which has been previously heated to drive out the moisture makes an excellent backing material for the welding of aluminum.

There is no danger of metal falling away during the welding process when the outer side is unsupported, unless the weld is excessively wide or the thickness dealt with is very large, or melting earned too fast.

At times it is advantageous to use tips to build the edges proper relative position. When work is done in a proper relative position, careful study of the quality of design and construction of gips and fixtures will well repay the effort



Fig. 9—Photograph showing the correct angle at which the blowpipe heat should be held to the sheet surface.

considered but also the temperature change, because the product of these two determines the total expansion.

In the above cases it was assumed that the metal was heated uniformly. In fusion welding, however, the heating is accomplished by applying a torch to one area, therefore the object is not heated uniformly. A small area, applied to the center of a sheet of aluminum, the sheet will be heated at that point and the metal all around the central area will also be heated, but to a decreasing extent, moving farther away from the point of heat application. The metal will tend to expand accordingly, the pressure increasing more than the compressive area further away. This tendency to grow out be accomplished only by a buckle forming in the sheet. If the sheet is perfectly

Welding Aluminum *and* Its Alloys

By W. M. DUNN, JR.

Midwestern Aluminum Company of America

THE purpose of this paper is to supply information on the welding of aluminum and its alloys. A weld as defined by the American Welding Society is "The localized intimate union of metal parts in the plastic or plastic and molten states with the application of mechanical pressure or blows, and in the molten or molten and vapor states without the application of mechanical pressure or blows."

Welding may be classified under three principal processes—forge, pressure, and fusion. The chief difference between these processes is that in forge welding the weld is in general completed by the application of a hammer. Now, in pressure welding, by means of the chemical pressure, and in fusion welding, without any mechanical means. The temperature at which the metals are united also differentiates these three processes, for with few exceptions the metals are, in forge welding, in the ductile state, in pressure welding in the plastic

this fusion welding with the oxy-hydrogen or oxy-acetylene torch. In the hands of an experienced aluminum welder the process is simple and rapid, and it can be applied to metal of all thicknesses. The resultant joint is not ugly, and if necessary the weld can be finished off in such a way that it is impossible to detect where the joint exists.

The same types of weld, that is, butt, lap, overlap, etc., are made in aluminum as in any other metal. Some training will be necessary before a welder can turn out consistently reliable results with aluminum. This metal has distinct characteristics of its own which involve a somewhat different technique from that required for steel, cast iron and other metals. However, this special technique is by no means difficult to acquire, for in point of fact, aluminum is one of the most readily weldable of all metals.

Torch welding is applicable both to the manufacture of articles from sheet aluminum and to the repair of aluminum alloy castings. In these two applications, the methods of working are generally the same, though the difference in physical properties may involve slight modifications. Aluminum alloy castings being more brittle than the pure aluminum sheet, the danger of cracking due to expansion and contraction effects is more serious; on the other hand, pure aluminum sheets are usually much thinner than aluminum castings and hence require a more delicate handling of the torch. For both classes of material, certain precautions are necessary to enable welds to be obtained. In the following paragraphs emphasis will be placed on the principal points to be observed in the welding of aluminum and its alloys.

The apparatus required for the torch welding of aluminum is not different from that required for welding other metals, and consists essentially of a supply of oxygen and hydrogen or acetylene, with reducing valves and safety valves, torches and a series of tips. The oxygen, hydrogen and acetylene is usually obtained from cylinders of compressed gas.

A special warning in connection with the use of oxygen tanks bears repeating many times. **DO NOT USE OIL OR GREASE** of any kind around oxygen tanks, valves, regulators or gauges. In the presence of oxygen under pressure, oil will catch fire and burn violently. This warning should always be heeded. An operator with greasy hands should not handle tanks of oxygen until his hands have been thoroughly washed and oily or greasy gloves, of course, should never be used.

A regulator, or "reducing valve" as it is sometimes called, is used to reduce the pressure of the gas flowing from the cylinder down to any wanted working pressure, and for delivering the gas to the torch not only at a constant pressure but also in constant volume. The reason



molten states and in fusion welding, in the molten state Aluminon and its alloys lend themselves most readily to fusion welding, and this is the type of welding to be discussed in this paper.

The term "fusion" is thought to be much more appropriate than "interdiffusion," which is sometimes incorrectly used for this type of welding. There are two general classes of fusion welding; the first, arc welding, which is most commonly used in steel work, has not been sufficiently developed for use with aluminum to permit using this process as a commercial application. The second class, torch or gas welding, is used extensively in the aluminum industry.

Among the methods which are employed for joining aluminum or its alloys none is more generally satisfactory.

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lators work with a diaphragm-controlled movement and are all very much alike. The diaphragm may be made of metal or special rubber composition. The gas enters the body of the regulator through a small nozzle, that closes when the regulator valve is closed to press against a composition disk or seat and exerts pressure outward on the diaphragm, an opposite pressure is exerted on the other side of the diaphragm by a wire spring. This pressure is regulated by an adjusting screw. When the adjusting screw is turned in it moves the disk seat away from the nozzle (in some regulators the seat is stationary and the nozzle is moved away) and permits the gas to enter the regulator, but as the gas pressure builds up on the diaphragm the disk seat is forced back against the nozzle and the gas passage is closed for a moment, and then this action takes place over and over again as long as the torch is being used. Hence, a constant balance is struck. The regulator can be set to deliver any desired available pressure by merely turning the adjusting screw in or out a variable number of turns.

It is evident that the cylinder valve should never be opened while the adjusting screw is turned in, that is, while the seat is away from the nozzle, as all of the pressure in the cylinder would be suddenly transmitted against the diaphragm and the valve seat would be forced

the pipe lines, should be provided. They generally employ a water seal, the incoming gas bubbling up through the water. In case of a flashback the water prevents the further propagation of the flame.

A longitudinal section of a flashback chamber of the simplest type is shown in Fig. 1. Fig. 2 shows a complete assembly of welding apparatus. The oxygen container is shown at A; hydrogen container at B, flashback chamber at C, torch at D, gas container at E.

A welding torch consists of two tubes, usually independent although sometimes one within the other, one for oxygen and the other for the combustible gas. On one end of each of these tubes is provided a hose connection, a control valve, and a grip. In "head" and "tip mixing" torches, the tubes at their other end are either soldered or mechanically assembled into a head in which the tip is inserted. Some "handle mixing" torches are so designed as to enclose the head, the tip assuming the form of a best tube which is mechanically connected into the grip or handle.

One of the most important factors to be considered in the selection of a torch is its relative freedom from flashbacks. The Bureau of Standards has made an extended study of these phenomena and the results were published in a paper by B. S. Johnson entitled "An Investigation of Oxy-acetylene Welding and Cutting Blow-pipes," presented before the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, May 13, 1921.

Selection of Tip Size Important

The selection of the correct size of torch tip for any particular work is practically a matter of experience. The tables given are merely a guide for the inexperienced welder, since the size of the tip must depend greatly upon the shape and size of the object to be welded, as well as upon the thickness. The welding of a large tank of aluminum will require a larger tip than the welding of a small piece of bar of equal thickness, because the larger article has a larger capacity for heat and a larger radiating surface. Much of the heat applied to the edges of the metal to be welded escapes by conduction to remote parts of the object, where it is absorbed in raising the temperature, and part is radiated away to the air. The tip must be of sufficient size to melt the edges in spite of this continuous drawing away of heat. The size of the tip will also depend to some extent upon the skill of the welder, a quick worker will be able to use a large tip which in the hands of a slower and less experienced man would result in overheating and the formation of holes. Table 1 gives the approximate size of tip and the gas pressure to be used when welding aluminum.



Fig. 2—A complete assembly of welding apparatus

against the nozzle with such a sudden impact as to either break the disk or rupture the diaphragm. The composition of this disk seat is an important matter. Hard rubber, leather, canvas, galahite, helvite, etc., is used with success. The seat should be soft enough to take an impression of the nozzle and thus seal tightly, yet not so soft that the nozzle will cut it. On the other hand it should be sufficiently hard and tough so that it will not be injured easily by grit that finds its way into the nozzle of the regulator, but not so hard that it is brittle and easily broken. The diaphragm is composed of either a highly tempered non-rusting metal alloy or of rubberized fabric. The former has the advantage of long life and non-inflammability with the disadvantage of being less sensitive while the latter has a shorter life but is more flexible and sensitive and can easily be replaced.

The pressure regulator is an excellent flashback preventive device. Very rarely does a flashback pass through a pressure regulator. However, flashback chambers, which are devices to prevent the propagation of flame through

Table 1

OXY HYDROGEN		Size of tip used, inch	Oxygen Pressure	Hydrogen Pressure
Model	Thick- ness			
10 in. to 12 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
12 in. to 14 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
14 in. to 16 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
16 in. to 18 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
18 in. to 20 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
20 in. to 22 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
22 in. to 24 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
24 in. to 26 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
26 in. to 28 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
28 in. to 30 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
30 in. to 32 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
32 in. to 34 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
34 in. to 36 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
36 in. to 38 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
38 in. to 40 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
40 in. to 42 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
42 in. to 44 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
44 in. to 46 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
46 in. to 48 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
48 in. to 50 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
50 in. to 52 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
52 in. to 54 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
54 in. to 56 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
56 in. to 58 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
58 in. to 60 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
60 in. to 62 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
62 in. to 64 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
64 in. to 66 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
66 in. to 68 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
68 in. to 70 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
70 in. to 72 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
72 in. to 74 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
74 in. to 76 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
76 in. to 78 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
78 in. to 80 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
80 in. to 82 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
82 in. to 84 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
84 in. to 86 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
86 in. to 88 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
88 in. to 90 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
90 in. to 92 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
92 in. to 94 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
94 in. to 96 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
96 in. to 98 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.
98 in. to 100 in.	1/8 in.	1/8 in.	1 lb.	2 lb.

To light the torch open the hydrogen or acetylene nozzle valve, which is the lower valve on the torch, and light the gas with the spark ignitor. Avoid using matches or an open flame. When extinguishing the torch the

oxygen control valve is always shut off before the hydrogen or acetylene control valve to avoid the possibility of burning up the torch tip if it is too hot.

In positive it is frequently found advisable, if regulators are not located near the work, to shut off both regulators at the same time, and when starting welding altogether, also the cylinder or pipe line-valves. When the foregoing is done, the torch valves should be shut closed to prevent a waste of fuel and possibly dangerous escape of gas. The torch valves should subsequently be opened for a few seconds to permit escape of gas in blow and torch, and closed again prior to putting torch away.

It is quite feasible to use any oxy-hydrogen flame whenever it will supply sufficient heat. The oxy-hydrogen flame produces a cleaner and more satisfactory joint and supplies sufficient heat for welding metal up to 1/4 in. in thickness. As indicated in the table, a larger tip is used for hydrogen than for acetylene on a given gauge of sheet.

Whether using hydrogen or acetylene, the torch should be carefully adjusted to show a neutral flame, as this gives the best speed and economy, as well as a cleaner and sounder weld. The oxy-hydrogen flame is neutral when the volume of the two gases issuing from the tip of the torch are just balanced. If there is an excess of oxygen, the flame will be rather small and will have a very short snail cone at the tip of the torch. With an excess of hydrogen the flame is long and ragged and there is no defined cone at the center. The neutral flame, in which the volume of the two gases is just right, has a well defined jet or blue cone in the center of the large flame.

Four distinct flames are possible with an oxy-acetylene welding torch. The first or acetylene flame is intensely

amount of acetylene until only one white cone is visible. Outside of this cone is a nearly colorless flame of large volume. This flame should be used for welding. It is not only the hottest flame, but it permits extensive oxidation of the molten metal by providing a reducing flame envelope.

The fourth or oxidizing flame is obtained by still further reducing the acetylene. The cone is shorter than that of the second flame. Proper regulation for welding is secured when the flame has one cone with an large dimensions as possible. To maintain the welding flame under practical conditions it is best to increase the supply of acetylene until two cones appear, then decrease it until only one is visible.

The various flames have characteristic sounds which the welder should note. The sound of the neutral flame is sharper than that of the carburizing flame but not as shrill as the oxidizing flame. In the Bureau of Standards tests of torches already referred to, it was found that most torches would not maintain consistently a neutral flame under practical welding conditions and that most operators, due to the personal equation, have a tendency to adjust the flame oxidizing.

Oxide Film Must Be Removed

All aluminum is coated with a thin film of aluminum oxide which prevents the easy collecting of the two surfaces of molten metal. The production of a sound weld in aluminum necessitates the removal of this oxide film. This obstructing film can be broken up mechanically by manipulation of the welding wire, or by breaking up the oxide film by the process, which is known as "puddling," the welder, as he proceeds, scrap continuously the molten bath with the welding stick or arc son wire. In this way he breaks up the oxide film and allows the metal to combine, and at the same time he scrapes the oxide to the surface. This method is not a satisfactory one because it is difficult to completely remove the oxide from the bath by puddling and there is considerable risk of acute induration in the solidified metal, which is an unsatisfactory condition.

It would be too strong to state that it is impossible to obtain a satisfactory weld by this method, but the quality of the weld depends so greatly upon the dexterity of the welder that it would be unsafe to rely upon the process as important work where the strength required is considerable. Apart from this, the method is slow, and therefore costly in gas and labor.

The most effective method of removing the oxide is by the use of a flux which has the ability to dissolve the aluminum oxide so that no undesirable alloy occur. A satisfactory flux for the welding of aluminum must have the following characteristics:

- (1) It must melt at a suitable temperature below the melting point of aluminum.
- (2) When molten, it must have the ability to dissolve aluminum oxide very readily.
- (3) The dissolving capacity of the flux must be sufficient to take care of all of the oxide which might happen to be present.

(4) The molten flux, with the oxide dissolved in it, must have a specific gravity less than that of the molten aluminum and the difference must be sufficient so that the flux will quickly and readily come to the surface of the molten metal, thus removing the oxide from the weld.

(5) The flux must be stable under the temperatures employed.

(6) It must not deteriorate with time, nor must it be too deliquescent.

Proper filling of the above requirements are prepared by a number of reputable manufacturers. The Aluminum

Company of America markets a flux for welding aluminum and its alloys known as "4222 Welding Flux."

A satisfactory way to use the flux is to mix it with water to the consistency of a thin paste. A very convenient flux container is made from a piece of three inch pipe as shown in Figure 3. An aluminum, brass or glass flux container should be used. It is likely to cause contamination by direct contact with the flux. A day's supply of the flux and water solution should be made up each morning. If any of the solution is left in the container over night, it should be thoroughly broken up and stirred next morning, as it tends to lump and crystallize upon standing. The flux is made highly hygroscopic to prevent it from drying out and flowing off the men shed of the welding torch. Due to this highly hygroscopic condition the dry flux, if left exposed to the atmosphere, may deteriorate. The dry flux is quite stable if the container is kept closed.

If a welding wire is used the wire is dipped into the flux solution, or if an arc method is used, the flux is applied to the joint by means of a small paint brush. In this manner, the flux is applied to the weld where, when and in the quantities required.

Choice of Welding Metal Important

Of utmost importance is the selection of the proper welding metal. The use of a welding rod or feeding stick is necessary with all but the thinnest sheet. Commercially pure aluminum (25) or aluminum-manganese alloy (15) should be welded with a pure aluminum welding stick. For welding the strong aluminum alloys (17S, 25S and 51S) a five per cent silicon welding stick is recommended. However, a welding stick of the same composition as the alloy to be welded will give particularly satisfactory results if proper technique may be used in a trade for expansion and contraction. The silicon welding alloy has a relatively slight solidification contraction and on account of its having a lower melting point than the base metal, it remains molten longer and fills in the voids caused by the solidification contraction of the base metal in the same way that a gate fills in the voids of a casting. This means that the stresses due to contraction which might otherwise cause frequent cracking in the base metal shift their effects to the metal supplied in welding. This metal which is noteworthy for its freedom from hot-shortness, which probably means facility at temperatures just under the melting point, as well as strength at these temperatures, will stand the strains without the development of cracks. There is necessity for caution in one respect when using a five per cent silicon alloy welding stick. If the welded articles are to be subjected to a high temperature or "solution" heat treatment after welding, it will be necessary to recognize the fact that this amount of silicon lowers the safe temperature to which some of the strong

alloys may be heat treated. Whether the original material is 51S, 25S, 17S or aluminum-copper alloy, it will be safe to use heat treating temperatures up to about 940 deg. F. even when the five per cent silicon alloy is used for welding.

The sizes of welding wire recommended for aluminum and aluminum alloys are given in Table II.

Table II

Thickness of Sheet to be Welded	Welding Wire Diameter (Inches)
1/16 in. to 1/8 in.	0.010
3/16 in. to 1/4 in.	0.015
1/2 in. to 3/4 in.	0.020
1 in. to 1 1/4 in.	0.025
1 1/2 in. to 2 in.	0.030
2 1/2 in. to 3 in.	0.035
3 1/2 in. to 4 in.	0.040
4 1/2 in. to 5 in.	0.045
5 1/2 in. to 6 in.	0.050
6 1/2 in. to 7 in.	0.055
7 1/2 in. to 8 in.	0.060

Light aluminum sheet (6061 and lighter) is usually flanged in preparation for welding as in Fig. 4. The flange should be about the same height as the thickness of the sheet or just a little higher. The joint is made by holding the two upstanding edges together and making close down. For such work as this no welding wire is required. Devoting a maximum of light sheet.

However, sheet can be beveled as in metal with steel plate. However, it is never to obtain full penetration by notching the sheet as shown in Figures 5 and 6. The edges of the sheet are cut through the entire thickness, the notches being about as deep as the thickness of the material, and about one-fourth inch apart. In welding, the edges are butted close together. By preparing the edges in this manner, the flux works down for the full thickness of the material, and considerable welding rod is saved. There is less chance of "burning through" and the notches act also as brace expansion joints, minimizing local distortion.

Particular care is needed when preparing the beveled edges of an aluminum sheet for welding, since these are extremely porous and may contain absorbed oils which, if not removed, will cause blow-holes in the weld. A good plan is to bend the edges before beginning to weld, when the absorbed gases will be sweated out and can be wiped off. Develop the best cleaning procedure as a wire source break and some good solvent. Not only the edges to be welded, but also the adjacent surface above and below should be cleaned with the scrub brush and washed in gasoline.

Aluminum sheet 1/4 in. thick and thicker should be preheated. Preheating will limit the consumption of oxygen and acetylene to that required for the actual melting of the metal. Furthermore, preheating will tend to prevent distortion. If the base metal for some distance on either side of the seam is maintained at a temperature

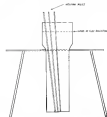


Fig. 3—Diagram showing a flux container which can be made easily from a three inch pipe.

while, of large volume and ready at its outer end. It is secured by lighting the acetylene gas which burns with the oxygen of the air.

The second or carburizing flame is secured by opening the oxygen control valve, thus obtaining better combustion of the acetylene in the absence of most. There is a small intensely white cone close to the tip surrounded by another white cone, both being clearly visible to the eye. Outside of these two cones is a flame which is nearly colorless and of large volume.

The third or neutral flame is secured by reducing the

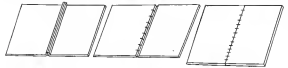


Fig. 4—Lap joint stamped the thickness of sheet. Fig. 5—Sheet with one edge notched and the other beveled at 45 deg. Fig. 6—Plate with edges notched

tensile strength of the plate cross section instead of shear strength.

The distance between rivets along a line which makes an acute angle with the line of load application may be estimated by combining the shear and tensile strength calculations.

The calculated permissible rivet spacing is often less than that which is practical from other considerations. Three rivets always be used to bend the rivets properly and this fact suggests a standard minimum spacing, for the smaller size, of three times the rivet diameter.

An interesting example of rivet joint failure is shown in the photograph of Fig. 6. These specimens were fractured by applying a tensile load at the ends. They were made primarily to discover the difference, if any, in tensile strength of aluminum alloy sheet when pulled parallel to

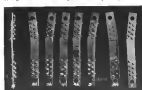


Fig. 6—The fractured specimens after an experiment in riveted joint failure. Tensile loads were applied to the ends of the samples.

the grain and at right angles to the grain. Although no appreciable difference in tensile strength was found, the specimens showed a very noticeable variation in the type of fracture was noted. An examination of the photograph will disclose that the same joint failed.

1. Through the first screw and first rivet holes.
2. Through the first and second screws and the first rivet holes, and
3. Through the first screw and first and second rivet holes.

These variations did not seem to depend upon the grain direction, caused by the direction of rolling the sheet, and the failure occurred at approximately the same loading per sq. in. in all cases.

Another point that occurs to mind is particularly applicable to joints which are formed with rivets on one side and nuts and plates. Great loading, especially when accomplished by slow sequencing, tends to expand the body of the rivet. The force thus generated is quite large and will actually split the sheet in which the rivet is inserted if that sheet is too weak. Expansion is the only possible reaction in this case as the expanding force is impossible to calculate. Before any large amount of money is invested in a fitting which might be ruined by this phenomenon it would be best to make a simple test to determine the minimum thickness and spacing permissible under the particular circumstances. This probably also has a demerit of affecting sometimes upon the allowable distance from a rivet to the edge of the plate.

Parts are occasionally joined by brazing but this is mostly unsatisfactory. A good braze joint, when rolling is used, will develop considerable static strength (about 10000 lb per sq. in. of base). Such a joint is difficult to obtain, however, and there is no way of inspecting the

finished joint so as to determine the effectiveness of the brazing. In addition it does not appear to have any appreciable tensile strength and there is some doubt about the effects of repeated loads so that this type of construction is generally discarded.

Solder is frequently used to join joints against corrosion but is of no use from the standpoint of strength. A soldered joint on shear will carry an appreciable static load because its failure usually lies below the rate of application of load. Under repeated loads, however, it rapidly breaks down completely and fails at very small repeated loads.

Castings are very useful as fittings, particularly those cast from aluminum alloy and heat-treated. This material casts very well and has a high ratio of strength to weight. Such material must be handled rather carefully to insure reliable results. In the first place there is always the fact that castings are not accurately made. Shrinkage and the distorting of cast metal accuracy almost impossible. There is also the ever-present danger of blowholes even in excellent casting material. Another danger occurs when the piece incorporates two or more parts of widely different thickness. The illustration in Fig. 7 will identify this idea. The difference in rate of cooling and shrinkage between the thick base *A* and the thin part *B* causes and weakens joint *C* to a material extent. The fundamentals of aluminum alloy cast fittings are somewhat as follows:

Provide a minimum thickness of $\frac{1}{16}$ in. as a joint to allow for casting shrinkage, reduce the opportunities for hidden blowholes to a minimum, and avoid joining two sections of widely different thicknesses.

Another common rule which is strictly followed in any type of casting and is consequently well known, is the provision of ample fillets at all corners.

Cast brass, especially manganese brass, would seem to be particularly well fitted to certain types of construction because of its non-corrosibility and non-magnetic properties. It can be made to develop a tensile strength as high as 60000 lb per sq. in., which somewhat compensates the fact that it is slightly heavier than steel. It cannot be used in conjunction with aluminum alloy, however, because it hastens the corrosion of the aluminum alloy to a very marked degree.

Forged fittings will undoubtedly be more widely used as soon as production becomes large enough to bring their cost within reason. Cast brass is by the only satisfactory



Fig. 7—Illustration of a casting incorporating two or more parts of widely different thickness.

material because aluminum alloy, some bronzes, and some alloy steels will produce tough and dependable forgings which are much easier in appearance than the present usual type.

Chrome-nickel and chrome-manganese steel forgings are being widely used for important parts of aircraft engines and their introduction into airplane structure will undoubtedly be only a matter of time.

The entire subject of materials and methods of construction for aircraft is now under such a great deal of study. We have only commenced to experiment with a few of the possibilities. A discussion of these possibilities is without the scope of this article but the few points noted above will serve to assist the designer

but and is a constant temperature before heat is applied, the bubble will run toward the flame. The sheet will not bubble downward away from the flame due to the fact that the surface tension of the flame is the bottom. A temperature gradient is set up through the thickness of the sheet and since the top surface must expand more than the bottom, due to this gradient, the sheet will bubble upward toward the flame. This is a very important detail in connection with welding sheet because some of the major troubles and difficulties with which a welder is concerned are due to warping and buckling of the sheets. The above are the underlying principles governing buckling and warping.

After completion of the weld all the heat which has been put into the work must be dissipated. When the heat cools the process, described above will be reversed, after which, where there has been expansion, there will now be contraction and the net change and forces involved will theoretically be equal in amount, though opposite in direction. Care must therefore be exercised in practice that the net result will be zero. If the dissipation cannot come back to what they were originally the work will be buckled and the weld will be severely strained. The weld is made while the metal is at an elevated temperature and after expansion has taken place, consequently on cooling down to normal temperature the weld reacts the metal's returning to its exact original volume. This is a natural phenomenon and cannot be altered, but the distortion or buckling caused by expansion and contraction can be minimized, localized and to some extent controlled. In welding a fitting to a flat piece it is necessary to put an edge in the joint that is a little larger than the fitting to be welded. This has a tendency to localize the buckling in the area of the section and maintain the buckling in the panel itself.

In welding, the obstacles due to contraction during cooling are increased, since the heating is usually localized. Therefore the repair of an aluminum casting, in which the danger of cracking is great, due to the shortness of the metal, is not to be undertaken without a reasonable degree of knowledge and a large degree of experience. Some of the important considerations are: joined by strength at repair by self-reinforced but ununiformed structures, whereas a welder in the process can rebuild a crack one equal in appearance and strength to a new casting from a mass of broken parts something ready for the scrap heap.

Working Speed Greater Than With Steel

In the welding of aluminum one of the main points in which the process differs from that of steel is in speed of working. The speed is very much greater than with steel, and the movement along the seam becomes more rapid as the metal becomes heated.

The welding rod is held loosely in the fingers of the left hand, and it is kept in a direct line with the side of the work. The rod is directed centrally so that it melts unobscuredly both the edges of the sheet to be welded and also the end of the welding rod. Both sides of the weld must be heated equally so that the edges will melt as the same extent, otherwise a bulky and uneven weld results. It is also important when starting that the two edges should commence to melt before any filling material is melted. The welder quickly learns to judge the correct manner to commence raising up the metal. If the torch is kept at an angle of about 30 deg. to the surface of the sheet it is directed centrally so that it melts unobscuredly both the edges of the sheet to be welded and also the end of the welding rod. By holding the torch at this angle the outer cone of the flame will envelope

the metal well ahead of the point of welding, and so will make welding progress more rapidly. Care must be taken that the weld penetrates the full thickness of the sheet. However, the weld must not be stopped in any one position for a sufficient length of time to melt holes through the sheet, neither should the inner cone of the flame be allowed to come into contact with the metal. The operator should make the metal completely free from signs of melting, and face the weld metal thoroughly with the oxygen metal from the sheet. It is not possible to determine the melting point by the color because aluminum does not change color through the entire heat range used in welding. That is, it does not become red-hot, but maintains its characteristic silvery white color even in the fluid state.

Progressive Tack Welding Necessary

The assembly of parts before welding is quite as important as welding itself. The parts must be held in position by welding tack welds progressively from end to end at intervals of three or four inches in order to prevent the edges slipping by each other. Intermittent tack welding produces an irregular weld and is likely to cause cracks. After tacking, the flame of the torch is played upon both edges of the pieces simultaneously, causing them to melt, and the oxide being removed by the flux, the molten edges flow together and coalesce. Only a very small part of the metal is melted in this way, and the maximum metal is provided by surface tension from drooping away. The weld progresses rapidly along the seam, the edges melting under the torch and solidifying almost immediately as the torch passes on. In welding long seams, if pronounced buckling starts by the metal stretching in or out, it should be straightened by hammering before proceeding further with the welding. When a welding rod is used, the tip of the rod should be held in the flame near the metal. Metal from the welding rod moved into the weld by the flame as the heat is applied. The weld is not sufficient to melt the rod. The welder should make sure that the added metal flows thoroughly with the base metal. The weld should be built up $\frac{1}{16}$ in. to $\frac{1}{8}$ in. above the surface of the base metal. The weld should be completed by making a contact with good workmanship, using a flame of maximum size. When the joint is completed every portion of the seam will have been melted and solidified again, hence the nature of the weld in the joint state.

In the case of hand solder joints, aluminum sheet the seam on either side of the weld must constitute the weakest part, for the thickness of the weld itself can be increased by the addition of welding rod, and the weakness of the joint is thereby made more pronounced by this means. The annealed seam on either side of the weld remains, however, so that whatever the original temper of the metal the first strength will be about 14000 lb per sq. in.

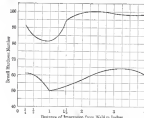
When a piece of metal is welded in the same manner as conventionally done aluminum sheet, and the same sort of conditions apply. Thus, hand rolled sheets, after welding, will exhibit the three zones:

- (1) Cast metal at the weld
- (2) Softened regions on either side
- (3) The unannealed part of the metal which has not been affected by the heat of welding.

With heat treated alloys such as 17S, 35S and 51S it might be expected that if the whole object is submitted to heat treatment after welding the original strength could be regained. However, these alloys in the cast

condition are much less susceptible to heat treatment than the wrought metal. Therefore, while the partially annealed zones on either side of the weld would respond to heat treatment, the cast metal in the weld would be much less affected.

In the case of heat treated alloys, the area on either side of the weld is not completely annealed. A series of Brinell inspections was made on welded specimens of



Curve No. 1 (lower)—S15W sheet as welded. Curve No. 2 (upper)—S15T sheet annealed in the H condition and then artificially aged.

0264 in heat treated S15 sheet to determine to what extent the heat treating affected the temper of the sheet. The results of this survey are shown graphically in curves No. 1 and No. 2. Curve No. 1, which represents the condition found in heat treated S15 sheet as welded, shows that at a point $\frac{1}{2}$ in. from the weld the sheet is in the heat treated condition. At a point one inch from the weld, which was found to be the softest area, a very slight annealing has taken place. The Brinell number for fully annealed S15 sheet is about 28, while the Brinell number at this soft area is 50. The Brinell number for heat treated S15 sheet is about 63. For the heat treated and artificially aged material the Brinell number is about 95. As we move farther away from the weld, the Brinell numbers show an increase in hardness until a maximum is reached at a point three inches from the weld. This point represents an area in which slight artificial ageing has occurred. Beyond this there is a slight decrease in hardness until a point four inches from the weld is reached. Beyond this point the temper of the sheet has not been affected by the heat of welding.

Curve No. 2 represents the conditions found in a specimen of heat treated S15 sheet that was artificially aged after welding. In the partially annealed area one inch from the weld aging has not had much effect. However, at a point two inches from the weld, the sheet has been fully aged.

Distortion is extremely hot-short and care must be taken to avoid contraction strains when welding this alloy. Such strains can be minimized by preheating or when this is not feasible, by allowing such a preheating in annealing the article to be welded that the metal adjacent to the weld will be free to contract without setting up undue strains on the weld. Perhaps one of the best means of preventing cracking from contraction strains is to use a 5 per cent silicon welding rod. As previously stated, this alloy has a lower melting point

than duralumin, hence remains molten after the base metal has solidified. This permits the weld metal to fill in the voids caused by the solidification contraction of the base metal. Furthermore, the stresses due to contraction shift then off from the base metal to the weld metal, which being free from hot shortness, will stand the strains without the development of cracks.

When a broken aluminum casting is to be welded, it should first be cleaned carefully, removing every trace of oil, grease and dirt by means of a wire brush and gasoline. Unless the casting has a very heavy grain structure, it is not necessary to feed the crack or cut out a vee. If the testing has a piece broken out of it, the piece or pieces should be held in correct position by light iron bars and appropriate clamps, the clamps being so attached as to avoid straining any portion of the casting, especially the thin walls (when near the molting point the metal is very weak and will collapse under slight strains). The cavity, particularly if a large one, should be preheated. Many expert welders are able to do spotweld work without preheating, but this ability results from long experience. If the casting to be welded is small, or if the weld is near the edge and is a thin welded section, the weld may be played over the pieces so as to preheat them before starting to weld. The cold aluminum should be heated slowly. A quick heat will crack the metal near the flame.

To consider again the broken crank case already mentioned, as soon as the casting is properly preheated, it is tack welded at points A and B (Fig. 8). Then starting at the middle of the break weld toward the ends. Welding rod is added by holding the tip of the rod in the nose cone of the mold. Contrary to welding practice on cast iron, the weld metal must be flowed into the weld by the flame, because the heat is the padded metal will not run with aluminum. When a few drops are melted off the welding rod, it is worked around and into place with a rubbing motion of the rod. Care must be taken to get the new bead metal to the bottom of the

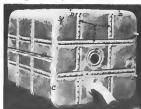


Fig. 10—Welded aluminum fuel tank for Curtiss plane. A—Rivet heads. B—Side view. C—Welded corner joint. D—Position hinge. E—Coverhatch.

crack, all the time playing the torch about freely, but always with the tip about two inches from the crack.

When the weld is finished the casting is annealed by holding four or six handfuls of charcoal and covering the furnace top with asbestos paper. The fire is allowed to burn out slowly and the casting cooled in the furnace. A charcoal furnace is not necessary when filing holes in castings. The area is preheated locally by playing the

torch about the hole. The hole should be shaped up so as to remove all pockets and to permit proper penetration of the torch. In filling blowholes the cavity should be thoroughly cleaned so that only clean metal is exposed. The preparation of a torch for filing by a dentist is an analogous operation.

For filing holes and welding castings, it is usually preferable to use a weld metal of the same composition as the casting. However, in the case of complicated castings where severe contraction strains are liable to occur, 5 per cent silicon welding rod would be more desirable.

Flux Should Be Used for Castings

A flux should be used when welding aluminum castings just the same as for cast aluminum, however, there is no objection to preheating. Preheating will usually break up the oxide film and leave it incorporated in the weld metal, thus weakening the weld. The flux will float the oxide particles to the surface and leave a clean sound weld.

As soon as the weld is finished and the work has had time to cool it should be thoroughly washed to remove all traces of flux. If the flux is permitted to remain on the work it will cause corrosion. Therefore it is so important to be sure that every trace of this residue, particularly if the completed job is to be painted. Milder cleaning by means of hot water and a scrubbing brush is not sufficient or thorough enough to remove the flux that may be in crevices or cracks which are not readily attacked by a scrubbing operation. A more effective method of removing the flux is by means of a stream jet, the stream jet impinging upon the welded joint. When a first metal blasting operation is used, the stream jet should be used both before and after sand blasting. A still more efficacious scheme for removing the flux is to wash in a hot two per cent nitric acid solution or a warm ten per cent sulphuric acid solution. In general, the flux removal may be very effectively performed by first thoroughly soaking the welded article in a "first wash" tank of hot water for about three minutes, during which soaking period the welded piece should be thoroughly scrubbed with a brush to remove the residual of the flux. The article is then dropped in the acid tank for from three to five minutes, after which it is again dipped in the first wash tank and then thoroughly rinsed

in a "final rinse" tank of hot water. The washed articles, if really may be dried in sand.

Welds in aluminum are quite often unbroken after completion, especially in the case of thin sheet metal where the weld should be so even that it is not touchable. When desirable the weld can be made completely invisible by grinding off the excess metal and polishing the whole.

Welded aluminum joints have not been looked upon with much favor by the designers and builders of aircraft. However, such joints are being used to some extent, particularly in gasoline tanks. Figures 10 and 11 are two different views of a gasoline tank built for the Curtiss company. These tanks, which have a capacity of 113 gals., are built of light gauge sheet aluminum. The baffles inside, shown in Fig. 12, are held in place by rivets, the rivet heads being welded to the outside of the tank where they come through to prevent leaks. All seams and all connections in the shell of the tanks are touch welded. Fig. 12 is a wing tank built for the Curtiss Robinson company. These tanks, which have a capacity of 26 gals., are also built of light gauge sheet aluminum. The large tanks are tested to 5 lb. per sq. in. and the small tanks are tested to 2.5 lb. per sq. in.

After welding the tanks are washed in warm water to remove the greater portion of the flux. They are then submerged for one hour in a warm ten per cent sulphuric acid solution to dissolve and remove all traces of the flux, which the tanks are then washed for one hour in running water. The tanks are then coated by connecting a hose and completely submerging the tank in water, forcing in air and forcing for leaks, which would be indicated by bubbles of air rising to the surface of the water. A mercury column is used for indicating the pressure as a pressure gauge is not sufficiently accurate.

Aluminum Welding Not Difficult

The factors which have been discussed are the ones which, if not properly controlled or handled, offer the greatest potential difficulties in welding aluminum. However, the welding of aluminum, and especially welding tanks, is not a really difficult process. Welding is a metallurgical process and it, consequently, governed largely by natural laws. Excellent consistent results will be obtained if the principles involved are understood and employed correctly.

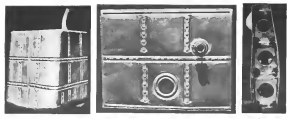


Fig. 11

Fig. 11—Side view of a welded aluminum gasoline tank for the Curtiss Robinson company.

Fig. 12

Fig. 12—Side view of a welded aluminum gasoline tank for the Curtiss Robinson company.

Fig. 13

Fig. 13—Arrangement of baffle plates in tank.

PATENTS ISSUED

Patent No. 1,700,946—Internal-Combustion Engine. John Scott Oliver, London, England. One claim. An internal combustion engine having a piston and a cylinder, a rotary sleeve valve, two sets of inlet and exhaust ports in the cylinder ports in said sleeve valve for regulating alternately the inlet and exhaust ports of said set, the first set of ports extending from a point at or near the head of the cylinder to a point intermediate in the stroke of the piston and being arranged to be opened and closed at the correct times by the movement of the sleeve valve, the second set of ports extending from a wider angle than said first set of ports and extending from a point intermediate in the stroke of the piston to a point at or near the bottom of the stroke of the piston, and are arranged to be opened and closed at the correct times by the movement of the piston in conjunction with the movement of the sleeve.

Patent No. 1,701,274—Control of Internal-Combustion Engines. William Floyd Riddick, Gloucester, England, assignor to Pithers Limited, Watlington, London, England. 11 Claims. In means for controlling variable speed internal combustion engines, an adjustable speed governor, a governing valve device, a fuel injection mechanism comprising a fuel pump, an injection valve, engine operated mechanism for actuating the fuel valve, means for operating part of the said mechanism under governor control to vary the duration of opening of said valve, a servo-motor having a controlling valve adjusted by the governor setting device, and a pump and controlled to the said governor controlled operating means so arranged as to vary the extent of the governor operated movement according to the adjustment of the governor setting device.

Patent No. 1,701,204—Aeroplane. John Dall, New York. 25 Claims. A flying machine embodying a fuselage or nacelle, port and outboard wings mounted for pivotal movement on pivots supported from the fuselage, means for adjusting said wings to vary the camber of the wing, in combination with a propeller cable drive of adjustment to vary the pitch thereof, mechanism for adjusting the propeller, and auxiliary means operatively connected to both the propeller adjusting mechanism and to the thrusting members and adapted when operating to simultaneously adjust the propellers and vary the incidence of the wings.

Patent No. 1,701,080—Control of Fuel-Injection Mechanisms for Internal-Combustion Engines. Edward Lee Sells, Worcester, Springfield, assignor to the Flow Sub-Valve Fitters Society, Worcester, Springfield, San Francisco. Three claims. A liquid fuel injection system comprising an injection valve, a source of liquid fuel under pressure, means for supplying liquid fuel from said source to one end of said valve to maintain it in normally closed position, means for supplying liquid fuel from said source to the other end of said valve and trapping it therein, and means for reducing in a predetermined instant the pressure of said source, whereby the pressure of the liquid fuel trapped in said first source end overbalances the pressure of the liquid fuel supplied to said first source end and causes the opening of said valve.

Patent No. 1,701,204—Aeroplane. Randolph F. Hall and Charles Alfred Phelps, Tucson, N. Y., assignors. By direct and means arrangements, of three-fourths to said Randolph F. Hall and one-fourth to Theodore P. Hall, Wellington, Conn. Nine claims. In a tapered aircraft element, a metal skin or covering therefor formed with a series of corrugations disposed longitudinally of the element and connected in tandem, and formed smooth between said series of corrugations to compensate for the element taper.

Patent No. 1,700,693—Aeroplane Propeller. Frank W. James, Troy, Mass. Five claims. In a propeller structure of the class described, a frame comprising a pair of side rails, a pair of bars, one slidable on each rail, a plurality of rings between the rails, a plurality of rings between the bars, flexible strips fixed to the rings of the rails and to adjacent rings of the bars, and means for sliding the bars in relation to the rails to spread and collapse the flexible strips.

Patent No. 1,700,226—Unmanned Aeronaut. Frank H. Hulse, Delahoe Harbor, N. Y., assignor to The Spray Gyroscope Company, Brooklyn, N. Y. 12 Claims.

Patent No. 1,700,496—Aeroplane. Arnold Schellert, Akron, O., assignor to Goodson-Koppelman Corp., Akron, O. Six claims. The combination with a strap comprising a flat portion having an adjustable gas cell therein and a gas bag disposed within the flat portion, connecting with the gas cell to engage the space within the flat portion, of a fitting gas for inflating the gas cell, and a controllable gas buster for the fitting gas for inflating the gas bag.

Patent No. 1,701,698—Rotary Internal-Combustion Engine. Ira P. Wiles, Chicago, Ill., assignor of Forty-Eight hundredthirty to James H. Ross, Chicago, Ill. Four claims. Is an internal combustion engine, cylinders arranged with their firing axes of the circumference of a circle, a suitable mounting therefor, pistons in said cylinders, a rotatable mounting therefor, separate adjustable intake and exhaust valves connected to said cylinders, and relatively fixed eccentric pistons meshing with said ones gear and adapted to cause oscillating ratchet movement between said cylinders and pistons.

Patent No. 1,700,402—Aircraft. Reginald Garcia, New York, N. Y. Five claims. A landing gear for aircraft of the character described including supporting wheels and vertical standards in which the wheels are journaled at the lower end, said standards having wedge shaped portions and yulldable wedge shaped means cooperating with said wedge shaped portions.

Patent No. 1,700,402—Aircraft. Reginald Garcia, New York, N. Y. Five claims. A landing gear for aircraft of the character described including supporting wheels and vertical standards in which the wheels are journaled at the lower end, said standards having wedge shaped portions and yulldable wedge shaped means cooperating with said wedge shaped portions.

Patent No. 1,701,768—Rotary-Engine Control Mechanism. Harold F. Fowers, Bryn Athyn, Pa. Eleven claims. In an aircraft, the combination of a universally mounted rotatable propeller and means adapted to inhibit the propeller from set up by its rotation to control its angular position with relation to the aircraft.



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